

The Bulletin

Secondary School Principals

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Current Administrative Practices in Secondary Education

A REVIEW of effective and worthy administrative practices in our American secondary schools. These articles are applicable to school schedules, record forms, instructional procedures, education in our age, and other aspects of the secondary-school program developed to meet the present-day needs of youth.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Appropriate and Worthy Education for All Youth.....	Walter G. Patterson..	5
Class Schedules of Large High Schools In Indiana.....	I. Clark Davis & Donald L. Simon.....	22
The "Rotating" Schedule.....	A. Russell Mack	25
Criteria of a Good Master Schedule.....	Wilbur Devilbiss	31
Record Forms for Secondary Schools.....	Paul E. Elicker.....	39
What About Surplus Property for Schools?.....	Edmund Baxter	49
Secondary School Administration.....	James Harold Fox.....	54
Scholarship Aid for Talented Youth.....	Paul E. Elicker.....	59
Is Your Teaching Effective?.....	Prof. Harold Feldman	63
High School English for Veterans.....	Iredell Aucott	67
Suffer High School Graduates Enter Teaching.....	Helen E. Wanamaker	72
An Evaluation of Integrating the Assembly with Curricular Activities.....	L. H. Richardson.....	77
Keeping Informed About the United Nations.....	Olav Paus-Grunt	80
Science, Technology, and the Secondary School.....	Hubert M. Evans.....	83
News Notes.....		98
Book Column.....		107

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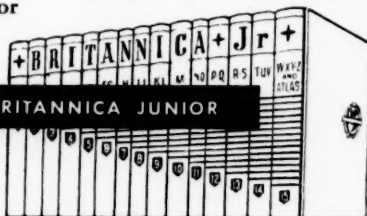
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Appropriate and Worthy Education For All Youth

WALTER G. PATTERSON

SHALL THE HIGH SCHOOL PROVIDE EDUCATION FOR ALL?

THE American high school is now facing a crisis. Either the problem of providing appropriate and worthy education for all youth will be met realistically and perhaps radically, or the high school will not retain its function and prestige in the future. There are many ways that youth may secure an education outside of formal schooling, and there are those who from a purely selfish motivated purpose will be glad to see the high school fail to meet the needs for all and thereby give impetus to a bureaucratic program outside the control of the public secondary schools. Parents have had almost blind and implicit faith in our high schools. How long this faith shall continue will depend upon the changes that are made. If the high school is to provide education for all, then the curriculum will have to be designed for all, professional people will have to accept the responsibility for all, and successful and satisfying experiences must be made possible for all.

The early purpose of the high school was easily understood and an adequate program of instruction was possible when the secondary school provided only preprofessional or precollege education. But during the past seventy-five years youth have been attending the American high schools in rapidly increasing numbers. In fact, there has been about an eighteen hundred per cent increase in enrollment. The present-day high school not only prepares for college, but in addition it prepares about eighty-five per cent of the youth for life. If and when the thirty per cent of youth of high-school age who are not now attending schools seek education, the problem of providing a worth-while program will be increased.

A precedent for adjusting the curriculum to the needs of youth is to be

Mr. Walter G. Patterson, Principal of Drury High School, North Adams, Massachusetts, has prepared this article with special emphasis on the slow academic learner.

found in the development of the junior high school. One of the fundamental purposes of the junior high school was to provide for guidance, exploration of interests and abilities, and adjustment to individual differences. Terminal education was provided for those youth who quit school at the close of the eighth and ninth grades. In the early nineteen-thirties the need for terminal training ceased to be an objective. Pupils, who were slow learners and who would have gone to work in earlier years, remained in school because there was no work to be had. Then, too, they may have taken the educators seriously when they were told how valuable a high-school education is to the graduate, and being encouraged by parents, they wanted additional education. Now, for example, the junior high school could no longer offer algebra to all and expect success from all pupils. At one time, algebra was called a "stumbling block" in the junior high school. Those pupils who could not succeed in algebra were called "dead wood" and not suitable for advancement to the high school. In fact even today the Harvard committee says in its report, *General Education in a Free Society*, that, "It has been estimated that algebra, for instance, is successfully taught to 14-year olds of slightly superior gifts, but that as now taught at least, it is more or less meaningless to fully half of the age group." The impact of large numbers of youth of nonacademic ability caused the junior high schools to adjust offerings, improve methods and techniques, and to develop an entirely new approach to education by partly eliminating subject matter fields and basing the new program on real needs and experiences. The high schools are now faced with the identical problem that has been so successfully met in the junior high schools. There is a grave doubt as to whether or not the traditional high school can become elastic enough in philosophy and practice to meet the challenge of *all* youth that has been thrust upon it. But it seems that a satisfactory solution must be found, or other schools and agencies will develop and provide the type of education that will be demanded by the people.

WHAT FACTORS ARE NOW CAUSING ALL YOUTH TO REMAIN IN HIGH SCHOOL?

A number of years ago educators were concerned about the problem, "Who should go to high school." In fact Function X of the Report of the Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association on the Orientation of Secondary Education stated specifically from the viewpoint of the professional educator who should and who should not be permitted to be educated in high schools. It said that, "To retain each student until the law of diminishing returns begins to operate, or until he is ready for more independent study in a higher institution; and when it is

manifest that he cannot or will not materially profit from further study of what can be offered, to eliminate him promptly, if possible directing him into some other school or into work for which he seems most fit." However desirable such a purpose is, the parents of American youth have indicated their desires for high-school education for all. Some factors which account for continuance in high school have been enumerated by Portenier¹ who states that: Parents require attendance; the pupils desire to learn a trade; school laws require attendance to age sixteen; the social life of the school is attractive; an interest is shown in vocational subjects; pupils are motivated by a desire to prepare for easier work than manual labor; ability grouping of pupils has lessened competition; some youth would rather stay in school than do manual labor; and youth possess the strong desire for social approval. In all fairness, can we differ greatly with these reasons? Portenier in her study stated that, "In conferences with pupils, faculty, and administrative officers, one could not fail to sense that social pressure is a big factor accounting for continuance in high school. Many pupils are continuing in high school because it seems the thing to do, it is a fad, all their friends are attending high school, it offers a line of least resistance and serves to satisfy many strong desires."² Anyone who has examined the literature in the field or has had experience in high-school work is well aware that many pupils who are below normal in range of intelligence are entering and remaining in high school.

To the serious educator and the academician is presented the question of admittance of youth to high school. The elementary teachers and supervisors are fearful that criticism will fall on them if their pupils are not *all* prepared to high standards of skills and academic achievements even beyond the abilities of many students. The traditionally minded educator is fearful that if the program is adjusted to the level and real needs of the pupils that there will be criticism of lowering standards. Having tradition for support, many educators would rather brave the criticism of the parent of the slow or unadjusted pupil than to change to meet new needs. Some help in this problem is stated in the Regents Report: "In general, pupils should be admitted to the secondary grades whenever, in the judgment of the local school authorities, the needs of these pupils can be served better by association with older pupils or by a program emphasizing vocational preparation than by a continuance of elementary-school work."³ In general, Mr. Spaulding would have one consider a sound estimate of abilities and needs and a systematically adapted program to pupils' major dif-

¹Lillian G. Portenier, *Pupils of Low Mentality in High Schools*, (New York), p. 82.

²*Ibid.*, p. 82.

³Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, (New York), p. 284.

ferences in interests and abilities. He, further, does not believe in "separate vocational school—for secondary-school pupils." Judgment is called for in helping each pupil.

In the early days of American education the main purpose was to educate for goodness and character. Then, beginning about 1860, education became largely concerned with facts and achievement of learning in subject fields. This second purpose was closely associated with the rapidly increasing business and industrial civilization. Now it is generally realized that knowledge itself is not enough and that education is needed for goodness and character too. The need for development of the personality is recognized today as a part of the modern school. A persistent effort in teaching academic subjects by academic methods to pupils of nonacademic ability often interferes with personality development. Persistent failure warps personality. How, then, can a school program be concerned only with book learning and only with the mentally gifted?

The study of the human mind and the measurement of its qualities are comparatively new. And yet, educators have placed almost uncritical faith in the intelligence quotient to the extent that many youth are looked upon with disdain or at least with hopelessness. What shall be our attitude toward the relegation of people into the various groups of intelligence? To begin with, one might have faith in the Almighty that everyone or at least all but institutional cases which need special care has an honorable service to perform and hence a respectable and useful place in society. Through observation we are led to believe that goodness is not limited to the most intelligent. In fact, there is a continual war waged by society to keep the intelligent from taking unfair advantage of the least intelligent.

And before we consider school brightness too seriously let us examine a few of the notable school failures who were condemned to failure, but who have gained world-wide recognition. Stenquist⁵ names only a few, who are as follows: Linnaeus, whose teacher thought him "unfit for any profession"; Charles Darwin, "was considered by all masters and by his father as a very ordinary boy, rather below the common standard of intellect"; Napoleon Bonaparte, who "stood 42nd in his class in military school, (Swift inquired of the 41 above him)"; Robert Fulton was called a dullard; Priestly, the great chemist, had "an exceedingly imperfect education"; Pasteur "was not at all remarkable in school"; M. Pierre Curie, Professor of Physics at the University of Paris, "was so stupid in school that his parents removed him and placed him un-

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 287.

⁵J. L. Stenquist, "The Case for the Low I. Q.," *Journal of Educational Research*, November, 1921, p. 241.

der a private tutor." In addition to these, in the writer's own time he has learned that Einstein failed in his mathematics examination for the University. Heywood Broun was not graduated from College, having failed in sophomore French. In Chicago, an English teacher told two of her pupils that they should give up writing because they showed no promise, and yet, they are today two nationally known writers. Gregg, known for his shorthand methods, withdrew from school, being labeled a dullard although his difficulty was defective hearing. Nearly everyone knows of many successful people in life who were not successful in book learning. What are the factors in intelligence that should be taken seriously? What attitude should the secondary-school educator take in regard to the matter of intelligence in his school? Shall the high school eliminate the low IQ pupil or shall it attempt to provide a suitable curriculum for him?

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF THE WANDERING IQ?

In the educational literature a few years ago some effort was made to disqualify the long-held belief that the IQ was fixed and could not be raised. It is not the purpose of this discussion to enter into the argument but rather to point to some promising trends in thinking about the matter of intelligence in relation to success in high school. Stenquist phrases the question neatly—"What sort of mentality has the individual who makes a low score in such tasks but who when he drops out of school has the ability to organize a gang that is all but undissolvable? Or who drops out of school and builds up a world-wide business on the identical ground where 'brighter' men have failed?"

Much of the early mental testing was narrowly restricted to limited phases of intelligence. Now, there is some common belief in a number of different kinds of intelligence. Stenquist says that, "As a matter of fact, it seems clear that intelligence may be of many kinds. Thus, for example, the campaign manager exhibits a quality differing sharply from that of the locomotive engineer; while the kind of intelligence required to lay out the construction work of a Woolworth Building is not very like that needed to write a forceful letter, and this in turn is not very like that employed in painting a great picture, or inventing a great machine such as the modern linotype." Much of the misinformation in the hands of educators in the fields cause people "to look down upon" those of less intelligence. This mistaken and unhealthy, in regard to mental health, point of view has reached many parents who are affected by the "fictitious stigmas" attached to low scores on verbal tests. Again, Stenquist thrusts at this dilemma in our thinking when he says, "There is a strong and universal no-

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 243.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 244.

tion that a low score in such tasks as have been called intelligence tests constituted a disgrace, that must be shunned at all costs. To fail to receive a high rating in intelligence is regarded as a calamity. This feeling has come about partly through the loose use of the term general intelligence, and partly through a distorted estimate of the role of intelligence in human conduct. Absurd as it may seem there is a brief, and a reasonable one, which can be held for the IQ which is actually low—as well as for the supposedly low IQ. For just as in man we find enormous individual differences in intelligence, so (fortunately) in the work of the world we find equally great variation in the character of the work to be done.—Haven't we in the academic atmosphere of our schoolrooms come to value the intellectual side of human nature out of proportion to its real significance in life?"⁹ In keeping with the thought of work for each one in keeping with his interests and abilities, a hopeful trend is the reducing of the number of skilled jobs in modern industry and the increasing of unskilled ones. For example, unskilled machine operators are in greater demand than skilled machinists. Then too, "It is shown that at least twenty per cent of the pupils from a typical school, who are below average in general abstract intelligence, are *above* average in the kind of ability required in four mechanical tests."¹⁰ In our present culture with heavy emphasis on science and mechanical work should we not place more emphasis and at least give recognition to intelligence other than strictly verbal intelligence? "Finally, it is maintained that there is a strong, but wrong tendency to attach stigma to pupils scoring low in so-called intelligence tests. Even for pupils whose true intelligence is found after adequate testing to be low, there is ample opportunity for useful and happy lives—lives concerned with tasks for which they are, in fact, better adapted than are individuals of high intelligence."¹⁰

One of the hopeful reports in breaking down a fatalistic and fixed attitude concerning the IQ was summarized in the *Clearing House*. "A special curriculum and special teaching methods for a 3-year period resulted in a mean gain of 40.7 IQ points for a group of 254 feeble-minded boys and girls," states Bernardine G. Schmidt in *School and Society*. When the experiment was begun the children were 12 to 14 years old, and had IQ's of from 27 to 69. After the 3-year in-school period, evaluation of the pupils was continued over a 5-year post-school period. At the end of the 8 years, about sixty per cent of the pupils were classifiable as low or high normals, and only about seven per cent were still feeble-minded. At the close of the study, twenty-seven per cent had com-

⁹*Ibid.*, p. 253.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 253.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 254.

pleted a 4-year high-school course. About eighty-three per cent were regularly employed—almost one third in skilled occupations and another third in clerical positions."¹¹ This encouraging report should influence us all to strive diligently to help our students develop and never to give up with any individual.

One of the difficult problems in working with slow learners is to set a policy for passing and failing. Marks are recommended for pupil achievement, which means progress in academic or subject matter. Now, if the school adjusts to all pupils, subject matter will receive less attention as such, and greater emphasis will be placed on meeting the real needs of youth regardless of subject matter lines. The real situation is reported by Lafferty who found, "that mental slowness and lack of effort accounted for forty-nine per cent of the failures in his study. He also reported that twenty-four per cent of the difficulties were due to mental deficiency and seventy-six per cent of the difficulties were due to conditions for which the school was essentially responsible."¹² If we take these findings seriously, we are responsible for much of the failure in the school for which we have been blaming the dullard for so many years. How much longer can we be complacent in view of the costs of such failures? The time for requiring pupils to adjust to the high-school curriculum which is beyond the grasp of many is now passed. Educators must now adjust the curriculum to the pupils as they are—not as many think they should be. Osgood and Beal summarize the problem when they say that, "After several investigations and experiments, it seems fairly evident that a large number of pupils enter the high school who are incapable of completing the regular curriculum and that a special curriculum adapted to their needs comes nearer to attaining the generally recognized educational objectives in their case than does the regular curriculum."¹³ As the program is traditionally and academically conceived, William M. Proctor of Stanford University, "found that a median IQ for those who dropped out of high school was ninety-four; for those who graduated from high school, 111; and for those who went to college, 118." And "Mary V. Cobb sets 110 as the probable IQ necessary for success in the four-year high-school course."¹⁴ Only the inexperienced would venture the opinion that all youth have the necessary IQ to be graduated from an academic high school. Since these pupils are in the schools in such large numbers and because the failure rate is very high, it may rightly be questioned if the lack of intelligence

¹¹*The Clearing House*, April, 1946, p. 479.

¹²Failure. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1074.

¹³E. L. Osgood and C. M. Beal. "Experimenting with the High School Misfit," *School Review*,

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 780.

Vol. 36, (1928), p. 779.

does not rightly lie at the doorstep of the people charged with the responsibility of the schools.

The elementary schools have had longer experience in handling slow learners than the high schools. An illustration taken from an elementary experiment will phrase rather accurately the situation to be found in many high schools. It is also used to summarize the arguments presented in behalf of curricular provisions for the slow learner or for the ones who learn differently. Taylor writes that, "The resulting insidious lack of interest permeated every aspect of their school life, and nullified all the strenuous efforts of the teacher, committed to the unprofitable task of flogging a dead horse. It was difficult to make the class pull together; there was no unity of spirit between teacher and taught; but only a vicious circle of cross-purposes, frayed tempers, and punishments, leading back to a still more obstinate lack of interest. One could hope to achieve nothing in such an atmosphere. Without the co-operation of the boys, the best laid schemes would be predestined to inevitable failure. Moreover, it was impossible to escape the conviction that all the fault was not on the side of the 'opposition.' One does not give beefsteak to a baby, yet the school seemed to be offering a diet of very indigestible kind of nourishment, and administering it by main force to a victim whose wiser instincts bade him reject it. There was a need for some new diet; whatever it might be it could not conceivably result in more acute indigestion than the old."¹³

The American high school needs to provide a curriculum and a program of education designed to meet effectively the many needs and purposes of all. The curriculum must be changed for certain groups of students who have been missed too long by a narrow program designed for college entrance and used extensively for all regardless of their needs. When a satisfactory curriculum is designed and used many of the present-day problems in secondary education will be resolved. For example, pupils will remain in school longer when they are receiving satisfaction in their work; motivation will be better when each one can profit by the program; discipline will improve when present-day frustrations through failure are removed; public support and interest will improve as larger and larger numbers of pupils receive satisfying education; teachers and administrators will have a happier and more effective relationship with pupils and parents. We should aim to emphasize school success as a basis for wholesome personality and character development. And as the school develops a new and different concept of its purposes and duties, the new education for all may be provided through experimentation.

¹³Elizabeth A. Taylor, *Experiments With A Backward Class*, p. 17-19.

WHAT IS THE NEW AND DIFFERENT CONCEPT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION?

Shall the high school retain its present organization of established subjects and make adjustments within subjects or shall a new approach be made to the problem based upon educational objectives and pupil needs? A philosophy of education which believes in education for *all* will need to be understood and approved by a large majority of faculties and the public. And here is found a basic conflict between the academician who believes only in education for the mentally able and the democratically minded who believes that strength is to be found in the maximum education and growth of each pupil according to his interests and abilities. This problem is not likely to be entirely resolved, but the trend must lean strongly to the second group if improvement is to be made.

After "lip" service is given to the newer concept, there will be needed changes and readjustments in the school organization, the curriculum, methods, and many other aspects. Freedom from rigidly imposed and self-adopted restrictions of organization and administration are essential to growth in meeting new responsibilities. Maximum flexibility between curricula and other phases of the program is inherent. The sole criteria must be that the needs of individual pupils are satisfied regardless of present-day curricula, restrictions, and activities. Subjects will need to be looked upon as *means* in helping pupils to attain individual goals. And whenever the subjects do not do the complete job new materials and methods must be added. The trend is away from subject matter specialists and is toward teachers who are dominated by a desire to lead and counsel youth. When teachers aim at the development of the whole pupil, even the present-day subjects are more meaningful and valuable. Spaulding believes that, "If schools in general are to provide as effective teaching as certain individual schools now provide, it is evident that they must break the academic mold in which most of their programs have been cast."¹⁶

The pattern of experimentation and research is suggested by Spaulding when he writes that, "It is evident that there must be continual trial of promising methods and subject matter under conditions which allow for pragmatic testing of their effectiveness."¹⁷ Considerable time can be made available for experimentation when we consider Tyler's¹⁸ statement that seventy per cent of textbook knowledge and facts are not retained after two years, while thinking abilities and skills are lifelong assets.

Many schools have ability grouping and broad curricula and recognize the problem of the nonacademic pupil. But in too many cases the poor are over-

¹⁶Francis T. Spaulding, *op. cit.*, p. 155.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, p. 155.

¹⁸Ralph W. Tyler, *Progressive Education*.

looked and the able pupils remain unchallenged. Failure continues to be placed on the dull even though lip service is rendered in their behalf. A practical approach and assumption of responsibility are needed.

WHAT ADJUSTMENTS AND PRACTICES SHOW PROMISE?

If a school is determined to act in the interest of *all* pupils, a dominant belief in controlled change as a way of life should be generally accepted and a willingness to face changes in standards will be helpful. Portenier found that, "Modifying the curricula in an attempt to meet the needs of the large influx of pupils into our high schools has been accompanied by a decided change in standards. Personal factors are influencing teachers' marks quite as much as is actual achievement, and in many cases more. Graduation from some of the leading high schools today indicates a high degree of ability to conform to standards, to co-operate, to persevere, to be dependable, *etc.*, rather than to meet certain academic standards, as is still commonly believed. This is a fact which is not sufficiently well recognized by the general public when high-school graduates seek employment and fail to meet the expectations of the employer. Disappointments leading to emotional maladaptation for the young people and severe criticism of the schools are inevitable. It is interesting to speculate what unfortunate results both for pupils and for schools must be experienced before American educators will face facts more fully and provide courses better adapted to the needs and abilities of pupils of low mentality and give more intelligent guidance in planning their life careers."¹⁰ As educators clarify purposes and practices, the public must be educated to the changed function of the secondary school. More reliance will be placed on guidance officers and pupils' records than on the high-school diploma as such.

One commonly accepted plan for meeting pupils needs is the special curriculum. This plan holds a promise and needs further trial and experimentation. Osgood and Beal report on their curricula adjustment: "It was fair, therefore, to assume that a girl with a low IQ who began her high-school career with two or more failures in major subjects would never graduate. The first-term record books show large numbers of such pupils each year. For these girls a special curriculum was organized. Only pupils with low IQ's who are failing in two or more major subjects are invited to transfer to this curriculum. The transfer may be made at any point in the school career of a girl, but special effort is made to reach the girls in the first term who are having difficulty before failure has become a habit.

"This curriculum follows the regular course of study in requiring four

¹⁰Portenier, *op. cit.*, p. 94.

years of English, three years of social studies, and two years of general science, with electives in two other fields. . . . Beginning in the last half of the second year, pupils work in business houses alternate weeks as co-operatives. Each teacher is encouraged to modify the methods and the subject matter of her course in such a manner as to reach these pupils. After the pupils enter upon the co-operative stage of their work, the teachers correlate classroom work as much as possible with the business experience of the pupils."²⁰

Because the elementary and intermediate schools have made marked progress in making adjustments for the slow-learners on their levels, there would appear to be merit in using in the high school successful teachers trained and experienced in intermediate work. The problems and methods are similar to the intermediate schools but the content must be on a different interest level. Any one experimenting with such a transfer of teachers should be alert to select those teachers who have proved their ability to cope with the problem of the slow-learners on the intermediate level. Activities designed especially for the lower schools hold much promise. Burton²¹ offers many worth-while suggestions. The selection and use of classroom procedures will help in any plan. For example, debating, group work, games, dramatization, contests, field trips, creative work, laboratory work, visitation for observation and study, and drill may be used to meet the psychological needs of practical minded youth.

Another practice would be to have different pupils work on different assignments and activities. For example, some may keep notebooks, while others may list books and magazines read. Pupils may plan and give oral reports, make a poster illustrating a unit, arrange the bulletin board, prepare an assembly program, and a hundred other things that any alert teacher will see value in as the work advances.

Vocational education is another means of providing suitable education, especially if considered in its broadest purpose. Studebaker believes that, "Vocational education when properly conceived has a very direct relation to general education. It provides the basis upon which many young people must build their personality development. This is only another way of saying that vocational education rightly conceived is rich in its significance for general education. Young people, particularly the less abstract-minded ones, will develop culturally from vocational studies rightly used, better than they will from the more abstract studies."²²

²⁰E. L. Osgood and C. M. Beal, *op. cit.*

²¹William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities.*

²²John W. Studebaker, "Education for the Eighty-five Per Cent," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, May, 1938, p. 180.

Miller²² would place the pupils directly in work situations in the school and teach pupils how to live by use of their hands. The lunch program would be handled by the girls. The pupils would learn the science of cleaning by washing windows, waxing, *etc.* Pupils would man the barber shop, beauty parlor, shoe-shine parlor, and the library. Sewing, home and community crafts, fancy work, preserves, school-canned food, leather, metal, wood and clay products would be made, used, or sold. Miller would place the academic training in the upper two years of high school and would place secondary education on a twelve months' basis including summer camping. He would emphasize "not how to live but how to live better."

Arnold²³ summarizes other areas needing alteration. Among these are the need for changing the standard unit of credit requirements for graduation and diploma. He would award all pupils who complete work planned for them according to their needs. A co-operative arrangement is needed with other agencies to help pupils make life adjustments. A few illustrations are industry, government agencies, welfare and civic groups, and religious and recreational organizations. Curriculum changes would mean different buildings, equipment, and science laboratories where life in its scientific aspects can be understood. Instead of scaling down and adulterating science course for the noncollege but practical-minded youths, plan to have the pupils work and experiment in the laboratories. Libraries could provide recreational and leisure reading, newspapers, magazines, and printed and pictorial materials of this modern world. School buses would extend the classroom by taking pupils away on excursions planned for educational purposes. Emphasis would be removed from abstract verbal instruction to more of firsthand experience with life in most of its aspects. Such a program would require changes in view point, in curriculum, in methods, and in organization. Textbooks would continue to be used but with a decreased emphasis.

Bacon²⁴ enumerates a number of areas in which practical minded youth may find worth-while experiences. Real work experience is recognized as a basic need for youth. Part-time and co-operative schools may give assistance. The curriculum is obligated to include problems in economics and sociology. Interdependency of peoples, participation in global affairs, consumer education, health and accident prevention, and leisure time are large areas for exploration and exploitation in the interest of meeting youth needs.

²²C. W. Miller, "Secondary Schools Must Change or Die," *Virginia Journal of Education*, October, 1941.

²³N. E. Arnold, "Changes in the Secondary School to Meet the Needs of All Youth," *Educational Outlook*, March, 1941.

²⁴F. L. Bacon, "Problems in Secondary Education," *Educational Record*, July, 1942.

Some attention should be given to a well-rounded program. Adjustment should be made in all subjects or activities affecting a pupil. A pupil who is successful in home economics and art may have difficulty with English and history. Modified courses may be planned for three levels of ability. More time may be spent by slow pupils on the bare essentials. The work must be made as concrete and practical as possible and abstract verbal work eliminated to a great extent. A sympathetic understanding by teachers and administrators is necessary. Additional adaptation to meet individual needs may be required. The assignments must be carefully made, and study periods supervised carefully. It is generally believed that pupils should be limited to four subjects or their equivalents.

The use of socialized recitation and supervised study are well suited to the nonverbal learner. Although studies made on achievement have not shown superiority of one method over another, yet in personality ratings a marked improvement is in favor of the laboratory method adjusted to pupil needs.

Visual and auditory methods are especially essential and should play an increasing part in the educational program. This implies that acceptable methods will be used in handling this phase of the program.

Carrothers suggests methods that may help in the actual teaching. "Far-seeing, intelligent, right-minded parents who understand the laws of human growth and development are able unobtrusively to plan programs for their children, to give them certain tasks to perform, together with a minimum of suggestion for their performance, and then to get out of the way. In the doing of the tasks by themselves, youth grow. Properly educated teachers also work intelligently with pupils in the planning of educational programs and in the assignment of topics or lessons for study. Teaching is reduced to a minimum and learning is magnified. The teacher studies ways and means to become more skillful at suggesting problems and arranging stimulating, interesting situations, more expert in collecting materials and useful equipment, and more adept at proposing questions which may lead to right solutions without directly divulging the answers.

"In many schools today there is a great need for a shift of emphasis from the much-talking, teacher-dominated class recitation to a teacher-planned, pupil-executed, learning situation."²⁰

WHAT NEW APPROACH IS ESSENTIAL?

A secondary-school program being designed to meet the needs of all will need to break radically from the traditional academic methods. Spaulding says

²⁰G. E. Carrothers, "Quality of Work Done in Secondary Schools," *National Association of Secondary School Principals*, December, 1942.

that, "Most of the teaching of general subjects in the high schools consists of drill on technical skills, and memorization of a kind of factual material which is significant to pupils chiefly because it is useful in passing examinations."²⁷ He further states that, "Nonacademic habits and abilities are seldom achieved merely as a result of the teaching of academic subjects. They can be achieved in very considerable measure by defining the qualities which boys and girls ought to possess, and by aiming as directly toward those qualities as schools now aim toward academic achievement."²⁸ A few general aims suggested are character building, preparation for home membership, political activity, and preparation for a vocation. Others will need to be added, but it is essential that a few objectives be agreed upon to give direction to the new curriculum.

WHAT FACTORS IMPEDE THE DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW CURRICULUM FOR ALL?

As in many endeavors, it is the small things that hinder action. Listed among these are: fear which can either paralyze or stimulate; lack of knowledge of practices and studies of the problem; habits and patterns of thinking that come down from schools designed for a different purpose; the bugaboos of determining marks and of awarding diplomas; lack of perspective; and no philosophy and objectives formulated and agreed upon.

It is natural for a social organization to work within familiar patterns. To deviate from the pattern or to anticipate a change often interferes with reason. As soon as fear strikes, thought is paralyzed. Therefore, a school will attempt to continue to function in the manner that it was designed. However, when things become bad enough, people charged with the responsibility for meeting the needs of youth can be spurred to action through fear caused by responsibility and consequences. Fear then can be harnessed to serve progress.

Full-time workers in secondary education are often burdened with work to the extent that it is extremely difficult to keep abreast of the changes in their own schools and in secondary education in general. The dissemination of practices and studies in secondary education often stops just short of the staff. When educators become more skillful in group study and planning, much of this difficulty will be overcome. A starting place in the solution of the problem of designing a curriculum for all youth could well begin with a plan of co-operative group study.

Principals and teachers hesitate to modify and change the curriculum because the problem of marking and awarding diplomas obstructs the larger purpose of the school. A suggestion would be to decide the major objectives of the

²⁷Spaulding, *op. cit.*, p. 125.

²⁸*Ibid.*, p. 133.

school. If providing education for all is one, make the adjustments and changes necessary, and then decide on how to handle marking. After all, no matter what is done cannot be too much worse than what now exists in many places. A consideration would be to mark each pupil on his growth rather than marking his growth in competition with others. Let the competition be with himself. After meeting an individual's educational purpose in the high school, award him the regular high-school diploma. When different kinds of diplomas are issued, it only provides an opportunity for dissatisfaction. In fact, the writer maintains it is unAmerican to differentiate in awarding diplomas. When the concept of education is pupil growth in all areas then academic achievement does not dominate our thinking and thereby cause us to place undue emphasis on marking and graduation.

Sometimes we become so involved with meeting immediate problems and with routine that we have neither the energy nor the ability to gain perspective. It would seem, therefore, that administrators should delegate enough duties to free them for study and observation. Teaching loads should be light enough to permit teacher participation. Plan to hold faculty and committee meetings in the morning before the teachers' energy is exhausted. How can this be done? Simply send pupils to movies or an assembly while the teachers meet.

When the principal and teachers formulate a philosophy and objectives and put them into writing, an excellent instrument is then available to guide the work of the school, and each phase of the school program can be evaluated in terms of the philosophy and objectives. When the purpose of the school is written, it can be changed as intelligent study warrants. However, when a school does not have a written purpose, it usually leads an aimless life.

SUMMARY

The American secondary school designed for our country many years ago is not now meeting the needs of all youth. The writer has tried to analyze several areas in which the thinking has not been too clear and to give several suggestions for action. Briefly, the writer has tried to show that:

1. It is absolutely necessary for the high school to provide education for all youth because the people demand it and society needs it.
2. The college preparatory function of the high school still exists, and, in addition, many other functions need to be inaugurated.
3. A precedent for adjustment has been set in the development of the junior high school.
4. The large numbers of nonacademic students who created a need for a new junior high-school program in the early nineteen thirties, have pushed into the high schools and have forced action upon the high-school people.
5. The chief concern now is not to decide whom the high school is to admit, but rather what are we going to do with them and for them.

6. Many pupils who are below normal in range of intelligence are entering and remaining in high school.
7. Admittance to high school should be based upon the ability of the school to serve the needs of youth when they can no longer be served as well in the elementary school.
8. Education should be directed to develop goodness and personality which are not limited to the best intellects.
9. School brightness does not assure success; neither does book dullness indicate failure in life. There appears to be evidence that there are many kinds of intelligence, and the school should learn to know each pupil's strength and educate and guide him accordingly.
10. There is opportunity for persons of all degrees of intelligence (all but institutional cases) and for their education through the high-school years.
11. A recent study by Schmidt shows that the average IQ scores of feeble-minded pupils was changed for a mean gain of 40.7 IQ points in a three-year period. What can be done with our slow learners in high school with an appropriate curriculum and effective teaching stirs the imagination.
12. The problems of marking and failure based upon a competitive academic curriculum will diminish as the school grapples with a new curriculum for all youth.
13. The secondary school must now adjust to youth as they are—not as many think they should be.
14. Since the elementary school has faced the problem of education for all youth, both realistically and effectively, the secondary school can afford to study elementary activities, methods, and practices.
15. The new curriculum must provide for noncollege students who have been neglected too long. Many of the problems of the high school of today will be resolved when the new curriculum begins to function.
16. The new functions of secondary education must be made to work under the present framework or more advanced schools may change the mold. It is not necessary for all schools to do alike, but all should do something to provide for all youth.
17. It will be necessary to keep the public informed about changes in the purposes of the school and in the curriculum.
18. Several suggestions were made upon which experiments may be started: the special curriculum, activities, directed or guided learning, vocational subjects, work experiences in and out of school, summer camp, individual assignments and projects, scaled-down abstract verbal instruction and increased work and firsthand experiences with life problems, modified subject programs, socialized recitation, pupil-sharing in planning, visual and auditory methods, and increased activity on part of pupil with decreased teacher domination.
19. To strike at the heart of the problem, plans must exclude for the slow learner much of the academic subject matter of which seventy per cent is forgotten and include more of skills in studying and solving problems.
20. A number of obstacles impede progress in changing the curriculum. However, objectives should be agreed upon, and all other factors placed in secondary position for study and adjustment.
21. Marking will be adjusted when concern is focused on pupil development as opposed to pupil factual knowledge.
22. Diplomas should be alike for all pupils. It is repugnant to Americans to differentiate in this matter.

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Class Schedules of Large High Schools in Indiana

I. CLARK DAVIS and
DONALD L. SIMON

IN order to compare the class schedule of the Bloomington, Indiana, High School with those of other schools of comparable size, schedules were obtained during the fall of 1945-46 from eighteen Indiana high schools, each having enrollment in excess of 1,000 pupils. Practices with respect to the framework of the schedules were studied. Pertinent data are presented here to give a number of principals, especially in larger schools, the opportunity of comparing their own scheduling practices therewith. Eight items received major attention.

1. *In what form were the schedules presented?* Fourteen were printed, one was blueprinted, and four were reproduced either by mimeograph or by a hectograph.¹

2. *When did the school day begin?* Five schools began their class schedule at 8:15 and five at 8:30. Six started classes before 8:15, while three opened school after 8:30.

3. *When did the school day close?* By far the most popular time for ending the school day was 3:30, seven schedules showing this hour as the closing time. One school closed as early as 2:30. Class schedules ended in two schools at 2:55; in three, at 3:00; in two, at 3:15; and in one, at 3:24. Three schools closed after 3:30.

4. *What was the length of the pupil's school day?* Excluding time for lunch, the length of the pupil's school day ranged from five and one-half to six and one-half hours, with the spread fairly even throughout the range at approximately five-minute intervals. Three schools had a school day of six

¹The Bloomington High School was included in the tabulations.

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hours; eight, between five and one-half and six hours; and eight, between six and six and one-half hours.

5. *How many periods were provided in the school day?* Taking time out for the pupil's lunch period, thirteen of the schools had six periods, eight of which had a home-room period in addition. One school had only five periods plus a home-room period. One school had seven periods; another, seven plus a home-room period. Two others had eight periods plus a home-room period, and one had nine plus a home-room period.

6. *What was the length of the class period?* Six schools had 55-minute periods, one had 50- and 55-minute periods, and three had 55- and 60-minute periods. Four schools had 40-minute and four 45-minute periods. One school had periods 56 minutes in length.

7. *What was the length of the home-room period?* Only thirteen schools had a home-room period. Of this number, four set aside 15 minutes each day; four, 20 minutes; one, 25 minutes; three, 30 minutes; and one 40 minutes. All schools having home-room periods scheduled them during the morning hours, the most popular time being at the opening of the school day.

8. *How much time was allowed for lunch?* About one half of the schools (nine in number) preferred to give their pupils one hour for lunch. Four gave only 45 minutes and three 55 minutes. One school allowed 65 minutes and one 75 minutes. One school gave its pupils the choice of 35 minutes or 90 minutes for noon period; however, each group had the same school day in length,—those taking the short noon period being dismissed earlier in the afternoon.

In the following Table the data are presented by schools, arranged in miscellaneous order, using a code letter to represent a particular school.² No two schools were doing exactly the same things with respect to their schedules, although a few approached similarity (J and K, for example). Schools in the same city varied about as much as schools in different cities.

All of the schools belong to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The principals of these schools, along with other principals, met frequently before the recent war in visiting various schools of the state, among which were some of those included in this study. Yet, each principal has gone his own way in making his schedule. One principal keeps his pupils in school one hour longer than another principal. While one principal can get along without a home-room period, another principal must set aside as much as 40 minutes for this purpose.

²Bloomington High School is represented by the letter S. The names of the other schools will be furnished by the authors upon request.

DATA ON CLASS SCHEDULES OF NINETEEN LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS
IN INDIANA—FALL SEMESTER 1945-46

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A	8:10 A.M.	3:30 P.M.	56 min	6 & HR	60 min	8:10- 8:30	6 hr 20 min
B	8:00	3:30	55	6 & HR	60	8:00- 8:30	6 30
C	8:30	3:15	50	6 & HR	55	8:30- 8:50	5 50
D	8:40	3:55	50	7	55		6 20
E	8:15	3:30	55	6 & HR	60	8:15- 8:40	6 15
F	8:05	2:15 or	55 &	5 & HR	35 or	10:10-10:40	5 35
		3:15	60		90		
G	8:15	2:55	40	7 & HR	45	9:45-10:25	5 55
H	8:00	2:55	55		60		5 55
I	8:50	3:45	55		55		6 00
J	8:30	3:30	50	6 & HR	60	8:30- 9:00	6 00
K	8:30	3:30	50	6 & HR	60	8:30- 8:45	6 00
			55				
L	8:10	3:24	55 &	6	60		6 14
			60				
M	8:00	3:00	55	6	65		5 55
N	8:15	3:30	55	6 & HR	60	9:10- 9:30	6 15
O	8:15	3:00	40	9 & HR	44	9:43- 9:58	6 07
P	8:45	3:00	40	8 & HR	45	11:45-12:00	5 30
Q	8:15	2:30	40	8 & HR	45	9:45-10:00	5 30
R	8:30	3:30	50	6 & HR	75	8:30- 8:50	5 45
S	8:30	3:35	55 &	6	60		6 05
			60				

Explanation of numerals in column heads

Column 1—Code letter for high schools, arranged in miscellaneous order.

(All have enrollment in excess of 1000 pupils.)

2—Hour of opening school.

3—Hour of closing school. (Few have activities and conference periods after hour shown.)

4—Length of class periods, exclusive of intermission.

5—Number of class periods, exclusive of lunch period.

6—Length of lunch period plus one intermission. (12 schools have continuous day with two or more lunch periods.)

7—Time of day for home-room period.

8—Length of pupil's school day, exclusive of lunch period.

With respect to the most common practices, it will suffice to state that the schools seem to prefer to have their schedules printed, to open the school day either at 8:15 or at 8:30, to close the day at 3:30, and to provide for a pupil's school day of approximately six hours with six 55-minute periods plus a short home-room period during the morning.

* * * * *

Your Association, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201-16th St. N.W., Washington 6, D.C., is in need of one copy (in good condition) of the January, 1944, issue of THE BULLETIN entitled "Student Activities in the Secondary School." If you can supply this, please write us.

The "Rotating" Schedule

A. RUSSELL MACK

THE following is an attempt to describe replies from Massachusetts high-school principals in response to an inquiry concerning rotating schedules. The survey of high schools made every other year by the State Department of Education contains the question,—“Is a rotating schedule used?” In 1944-45, there were 56 principals who answered—“Yes.” A letter was forwarded to these 56 principals, and many gave detailed accounts of their practices, with reasons, *pro* and *con*.

It was soon necessary to define terms. It would seem true that the word “rotating” in this connection has come to mean any scheduling other than the traditional 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Other terms used were: *revised* schedule, *flexible* program, *extended* period, *floating* period, *progressive* schedule, *diagonal* system, *modified*, *spiral*, etc.

In general, the objective was to have a weekly program so arranged that no subject was favored as to the time of day it appeared on the schedule. If pupils are most alert the first or second period of the day, or the least alert during the period after lunch or the last of the day, this could be corrected or improved by rearranging the periods so that there was not the same sequence every day in the week. Gardner High School for many years has had this, and the principal considers it “desirable.” His system is as follows:

M	T	W	T	F
1	6	5	4	3
2	5	6	3	4
3	4	1	2	5
4	3	2	1	6
5	2	3	6	1
6	1	4	5	2

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It should be observed that the schedule at Gardner is the same week after week. At Turners Falls High School where the above-mentioned has been used since 1927, the principal states also that it is "very handy when we wish to omit a period, . . . no one period suffers because of too frequent omission." The principal at Weymouth makes a similar statement, where there is a more evenly balanced program.

The earliest date in Massachusetts of the use of a rotating schedule came rightly enough from the oldest (1635) secondary school in the United States—namely, the Boston Public Latin School (Boys), where the rotating schedule has been in effect since about 1900. There, the schedule is:

M	T	W	T	F
1	6	5	4	Gym
2	1	6	5	4
3	2	1	6	5
4	Gym	2	1	6
5	4	3	2	1
6	5	4	3	2

With the desire to have a changing daily schedule, there was also the realization of the need for longer periods. In Massachusetts the median net length of a period is 40 to 44 minutes. Many teachers, especially those of certain subjects, wanted longer periods. By omitting a period daily, this could be obtained, for example, by planning a six-block system for a five-period day. Not only would each period be 1/5th of a period longer, but one passing of pupils from class to class would be eliminated. In a school of 1000 pupils, and allowing three minutes between periods, this would result in a saving of 3000 pupil minutes; also each period would be lengthened from approximately a 40 minute period to a 50 minute period. At Newton High School where this has been the practice since 1925, the plan is as follows:

M	T	W	T	F
1	6	H.R.	3	2
2	1	5	4	3
3	2	6	5	4
4	3	1	6	5
5	4	2	1	6

This, it should be observed, provides a home-room period, once a week.

At Framingham there was a similar arrangement during the war years, but the principal states that some teachers, and he included teachers of mathematics or science, did not feel that they were "giving their students as much material as previously." He also emphasized that it means that subjects do not come every day, which is possibly bad from an educational standpoint, and that it is difficult when there are part-time teachers.

At Hamilton High School there are six (6) periods in the schedule and only four (4) periods are held each day, so that each period is an hour long, as follows:

M	T	W	T	F
1	5	3	1	5
2	6	4	2	6
3	1	5	3	1
4	2	6	4	2

The following Monday would start with the third period, and there would not be the same schedule week after week. The principal wrote that "it is not confusing, pupils and teachers get accustomed to it very quickly, and enjoy the variety and ease of operation." He emphasized the gain in the average number of minutes per week. He also stated that the use of hour-long periods requires a special type of teaching, and that periods should be divided into review, teaching, and real supervised study. Some may object that one hour may be too long for some subjects, also that there are not as many subjects on some days as compared with others, so that on some days the preparation may be more easy or difficult than on others.

Variations of the foregoing types were many. At Hingham, where the rotating schedule was started in 1940, there is a sixth-period schedule on a five-period day with an "X" period for activities. At Holden High School, there is a six-period daily program which rotates except for the third and fourth periods. These two periods remain the same daily, on account of a part-time teacher who also has some work in the elementary school, of the school district.

At Springfield Technical High School, the plan since October, 1942, is to have four (4) periods of work, 75 minutes long on the first school day, followed by four (4) similar periods of different work the succeeding day, and continuing alternately. The principal emphasized the time saved in opening and closing 90 times a year in each class instead of 180.

Junior high-school principals have not used the rotating schedule to any extent. Principal Shepherd of Somerville Southern Junior High School stated that the rotating schedule was tried out carefully about fifteen years ago, and given up, with the conviction that there was no comparative advantage. At the Teachers College Junior High School, Fitchburg, there is a variation in the program, in that certain subjects are not scheduled at the same time daily.

At the Roosevelt Junior High School, New Bedford, the rotating schedule has been in effect since 1927; the Beebe Junior High School, Malden, since 1926; and at the Bates School, Middleboro, it has just been initiated.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

The foregoing account perhaps gives something of the picture. There are advantages and disadvantages to any system. Sometimes a point claimed by one principal as an advantage may be cited as a disadvantage by another. The longer period was presented as both good and bad. Large and small schools alike had their supporters of the rotating schedule, although in small schools there was more often the disadvantage of having some part-time teachers, absolutely preventing any but a regular schedule in certain cases.

An article in the May, 1945, issue of *The Clearing House* by Alfred E. Gilbert on "The Extended Period" gives another variation, making possible a 90-minute period, by having a floating 45-minute period added to the first period on Monday, the second on Tuesday, etc., with each two-week schedule exactly like the next. Mr. Gilbert claims no insurance of better education, but states that, used wisely, it affords an opportunity for a co-ordination of work. The article is recommended for reading by those interested.

Advantages of the rotating schedule as summarized by Principal Pittaway of Ashland who has a six-period day with a seven-period schedule are:

1. Better work the last two periods of the day
2. Better eating habits
3. Longer period permits more work to be done
4. Each day same as preceding week
5. Fair to all subjects
6. Greater variety for pupils and teachers, relieves monotony
7. A flexible activity period

His system in effect since 1940 is:

M	T	W	T	F
A	6	5	4	3
1	7	6	5	4
2	1	7	6	5
3	2	1	7	6
4	3	2	1	7
5	4	3	2	A

The Rotating Schedule is seen to be identified with dropping one or two periods, so that arguments *pro* and *con*, involve other factors than a simple change in the order of periods.

Advantages

1. That the longer periods do away with double laboratory periods.
2. That less time is wasted in moving from class to class, and that instruction can perhaps be better organized.
3. That the rotating schedule makes easier the scheduling of an activity period, especially advantageous where bus pupils must have such a period in school hours or not at all.

Disadvantages

1. It may involve longer periods, and if so, depending upon the subject, there should be a different technique of teaching, not always easily obtained.
2. Certain subjects, as typewriting, lend themselves better to five shorter periods than they do to four longer periods.
3. There may be confusion as to which subjects are "coming tomorrow."
4. The longer periods resulting may not be long enough for (for example) practical arts and science classes, so that double periods may be better.
5. Principal S. O. Smith of Springfield High School of Commerce quoted Professor F. G. Nichols of Harvard as stating that the best learning requires daily lessons and daily assignments.
6. Too many recitation periods may occur on certain days either at the beginning of the day or near the end.

Incidentally, one principal stated that he believed that the advantages were very much overrated; that, while the longer periods should mean better organization, it actually does not, and that teachers do not realize that the teaching situation and technique should be different. Perhaps, too, it should also be stated that the educational psychologist might argue that if there are less favored periods, (the one after lunch, or the last one in the day) it is due to lack of desire rather than a change in the capacity to learn. Read *How Never to be Tired* by Marie Beynon Ray, published by Bobbs Merrill Co., 1945.

According to one's educational philosophy, some of these *pros* and *cons* may loom up larger than others. The writer's conclusion is that the chief advantage is the spread of courses over the most as well as the least desirable periods, and that the disadvantage is the possible confusion. The objective of securing this advantage without the disadvantage is certainly obtainable in some schools and justifies a trial according to the special circumstances involved in any particular school.

Appreciation is expressed at this time of the many able and comprehensive replies made by principals. The following schools have rotating schedules,—

Ashland
 Boston—Charlestown
 Commerce
 English
 Girls' High
 Latin
 Brockton
 Cambridge—High and
 Latin
 Duxbury

Fall River
 Fitchburg
 Framingham
 Gloucester
 Gardner
 Harwich
 Hamilton
 Hingham
 Holden
 Leominster

Littleton
 Ludlow
 Lunenburg
 Mendon
 Melrose
 Merrimac
 Montague
 Newton
 Pepperell
 Petersham
 Plainville
 Quincy
 Randolph
 Rockport
 Sherborn

Sheffield
 South Hadley
 Springfield—Technical
 Commerce
 Stoughton
 Townsend
 Ware
 Wayland
 Webster
 Wellesley
 West Springfield
 West Bridgewater
 Westfield¹
 Weymouth

The following junior high schools have rotating schedules,—

Boston—Michael Angelo
 Fall River—Henry Lord
 Fitchburg—State Teachers College

Malden-Beebe
 Middleboro
 New Bedford—Roosevelt
 Somerville—Western

¹Westfield—a six-block plan with a five-period day, with the sixth period omitted Monday, second period on Tuesday, third period Wednesday, etc.

TEACHERS SUPPORT CONSERVATION DRIVE—By instituting regular recitation of America's Conservation Pledge in school classrooms and assemblies, teachers are giving active support to the vigorous fight which is being waged all over the nation to save our vanishing natural resources from further waste and misuse. The Pledge was brought into being through a national competition sponsored as a public service by *Outdoor Life* magazine with the collaboration of an advisory board of Federal and state conservationists, and leading scientists and educators. The winning entry was formally accepted for the American people by Secretary of Interior J. A. Krug. It is as follows: "*I give my Pledge as an American to save and faithfully to defend from waste the natural resources of my country—its soil and minerals, its forests, waters, and wildlife.*"

The purpose of the Pledge is to familiarize Americans with the practical meaning of conservation and arouse them to the critical need for saving our natural wealth which, far from being inexhaustible, has dwindled alarmingly. To accomplish this, the Conservation Pledge can be recited regularly—like the Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag, to which it is a most fitting adjunct. The national Conservation Pledge movement has the indorsement and enthusiastic support of all Federal, state, and private conservation agencies. It has been adopted, not only by schools, but by civic and patriotic groups, sportsman's clubs, and other bodies throughout the country. A timely and helpful project for art and manual-training classes is the making of Pledge reproductions in the form of posters, plaques, and in other ways for permanent display in classrooms. Some striking presentations have been achieved by students. Teachers can obtain copies of the Pledge design without cost by writing to *Outdoor Life*, 353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, N.Y.

Criteria of a Good Master Schedule

WILBUR DEVILBISS

ONE of the most important duties of a high-school principal is that of preparing the schedule for the operation of the school's program. It is a challenge to his ability and skill in planning, organizing, and administering the program of activities of the school. Through the schedule the principal gives expression to his philosophy and understanding of the objectives of secondary education, his concepts of relative values in the school program, his human understanding, and his ability to marshal all of the resources for the greatest good to the largest number.

The schedule is important to the teachers in a school. Their morale will be good to the degree that each has a fair and equitable load, a teaching assignment consistent with his training and interests, a well-balanced and well-arranged schedule, and free time for physical and mental relaxation. The *esprit de corps* depends upon the type of in-service professional program and how well it acquaints each teacher with the objectives of the school and serves as a challenge to greater effort and improvement.

The schedule is very important to the pupil. It determines for him the degree to which an appropriate program in terms of his interests, needs, and abilities can be arranged. To the extent that the pupil is recognized as the focal point, the school program becomes appropriate and functional for the greatest number of pupils. The feeling that each pupil has about the school is often conditioned by the way his schedule is planned.

Because of the importance of a good schedule to the smooth performance of the total school program and its effects upon the teachers and pupils, this set of criteria and specifications is presented with the hope that they may be of some assistance to the high-school principals in making an evaluation of the schedule prepared for the school's program.

Mr. Wilbur Devilbiss is Supervisor of High Schools in the State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland

CRITERION ONE

A good schedule must make it possible to provide and administer the kinds of learning experiences needed to implement the purposes for which the school exists.

The schedule should be determined by the curriculum; not the reverse. It is evident that in some schools the offerings are limited and sometimes determined in part by the schedule. This ought not to be. Learning experiences provided by the school should be determined by the needs of the pupils served, in relation to the society in which they live.

SPECIFICATION 1. The schedule must be flexible.

Too often, schedules are built on a standard providing class periods of equal lengths and classes meeting once a day, five days a week. A flexible schedule may need to provide for class periods of varying lengths and for some classes meeting more than or less than five times a week. If the school's program is formulated in terms of the needs of the pupils, then the schedule should make it possible for that program to be available to the pupils. An inflexible schedule tends to prevent such adaptation of the program to the needs of the pupils.

SPECIFICATION 2. The schedule should make it possible for all pupils to participate in those learning experiences which the purposes of the school and the curriculum indicate they should have in common.

Despite the individual differences that exist among pupils, there is general agreement that there are certain needs common to all (e.g., competence in the fundamental tools, citizenship rights and responsibilities, health knowledge and habits, and many others). There is, however, much disagreement concerning the nature of these needs. For practical purposes, each school must determine for itself the common needs of its pupils in the light of its philosophy and purposes. The schedule must make it possible for all pupils to have the opportunity to satisfy these needs once they are established.

SPECIFICATION 3. The schedule should permit, in so far as is possible, the kinds of instruction needed to achieve the purposes of the school.

Not infrequently the schedule makes it difficult for teachers to use instructional methods considered most appropriate in the achievement of the school's purposes. For instance, schedule difficulties restrict the full use of the community in instruction; and sometimes make it impossible to use the library and visual aids to best advantage. Work experiences are often limited because of schedule difficulties.

SPECIFICATION 4. *A good schedule provides time for the free activities of the school program.*

Even if many of the so-called extracurricular activities are absorbed by the regular classroom activities, it is likely that some extra-classroom pupil activities will continue to exist. If these free activities are to be justified in the school program, they must be considered an integral part of the learning experiences provided by the school and the schedule should provide for them. Failure to schedule such activities as club meetings, assemblies, and others, may result in the failure of some pupils, needing these activities, to participate in them. This may also result in interference between classroom and extra-classroom activities.

SPECIFICATION 5. *The schedule should make full use of all available devices to overcome handicaps due to small size of the various grades in the school.*

It is sometimes assumed that the handicaps imposed by small size cannot be overcome. Spaulding and others have shown that this is not always true (e.g., combining grades, sections, and others). An ingenious administrator can do much to overcome some of these handicaps, although it is granted that small size creates many obstacles.

SPECIFICATION 6. *The schedule should make possible the best educational program for each individual pupil.*

In many schools schedules are based on the principle of the "best fit for the majority of pupils." Only by basing the schedule upon individual pupil programs that have resulted from an adequate program of guidance can this specification be met. Large schools can meet the needs of individuals reasonably well by developing schedules based upon section programs since the existence of several classes in each subject per grade provides needed flexibility in the construction of individual programs for each pupil. This is not possible in small schools. If the program needs of each pupil are to be met satisfactorily in these schools, they must be taken into consideration while the schedule is being constructed. This will likely require the use of a conflict sheet or its equivalent.

CRITERION TWO

A good schedule provides for the maximum utilization of all the human resources of the school for the benefit of the greatest number of pupils.

Sometimes, administrators construct schedules as if schools were for the convenience of teachers rather than the instruction of pupils. Often the more

capable and experienced teachers are allowed to choose subjects and sections to be taught. This necessitates difficult groups and subjects being given to inexperienced and less capable teachers. It is the task of the administrator in the construction of the schedule to utilize all the available human resources (teachers, pupils, clerk, custodian, *etc.*) to best advantage. Since the human resources available to the administrator are often fewer than desired, this criterion poses a challenging problem.

SPECIFICATION 1. The schedule is most effective when each teacher has an assignment consistent with his training, talents, and interests.

Obviously, principals of small schools will have to cope with teacher deficiencies in training, aptitudes, and interests. Nevertheless, a good schedule will make possible the best use of these factors in making teacher assignments.

SPECIFICATION 2. The teaching load must be equitable.

Principals in their efforts to provide pupils with the best possible instruction frequently place unusually heavy loads upon able teachers and permit mediocre and poor teachers, often receiving equal or higher salaries, to have very light loads. The immediate effect of this may be favorable to the pupils, but the long-term effects, resulting in dissension, feelings of unfairness, and unco-operativeness, make this practice undesirable. Teaching loads should be equated, or appropriate remuneration should be provided for loads lighter and heavier than average.

SPECIFICATION 3. The teaching load of each teacher must be within the physical capacity of the teacher.

If teachers are expected to instruct efficiently, they must be given reasonable teaching assignments and adequate opportunities for physical and mental relaxation. Many teachers are less effective than they might be simply because they are trying to do too much. While the administrator has a responsibility and obligation to promote and protect the health of each teacher, each teacher has the responsibility to protect his own health. The low physical capacities of teachers are often due to their neglect of healthful living practices. The responsibility of the teacher in this matter is difficult to determine. It is recognized that this specification may result in some administrative difficulties.

SPECIFICATION 4. The schedule should make possible the most favorable induction of beginning teachers.

The beginning teacher has a great many adjustments to make. Unwise teaching assignments may inhibit desirable growth and development. Too often beginning teachers are given inequitably heavy loads, slow-learning groups,

subjects not wanted by other teachers, and the poorest teaching facilities. Such conditions can only be justified by the assumption that schools exist for the convenience of teachers instead of the instruction of pupils.

SPECIFICATION 5. The principal ought not to permit attention to management execution and teaching to invade the time that should be devoted to supervision, management planning, management control, and public relations.

Problems in management execution are nearly always pressing and of a type that cannot be deferred. Principals tend to do the things that have to be done immediately, deferring the rest. This ought to be recognized in schedule construction. The schedule in so far as is possible should provide the principal with time to perform *all* the functions of his office.

SPECIFICATION 6. The schedule should encourage, stimulate, and permit the most effective use of pupil leadership in carrying out the educational program of the school.

It is not implied that pupils can or should assume responsibility for management and teaching. However, each pupil should have opportunity to make the best contribution of which he is capable. Such pupil participation should be planned not only as a means of developing good citizenship in a democracy, but also as an integral part of the individual growth and development of the pupil.

SPECIFICATION 7. The schedule should make it possible to utilize fully the lay resources of the community.

Education is not merely the concern of teachers. It is a social process vital to every member of a community. Thus, everyone in a community should assume some responsibility for the operation of the school. The contribution of some will be very small; of others, great. The schedule should make maximum provision for such lay contribution to the educational program of the school.

CRITERION THREE

A good schedule provides for the maximum utilization of all physical resources of the school.

The physical resources of the school fall into two categories, plant and equipment. Both of these should be so utilized that they make the greatest contribution to the educational program of the school.

SPECIFICATION 1. The standard classrooms should be effectively and intelligently assigned and used.

For some subjects, as now taught, no special type of room is needed for instructional purposes. Ideally, every classroom should be provided with phys-

ical facilities best suited to the kind of instruction needed. In practice, however, administrators have available facilities that often fall short of what is desirable. It is important that the best use be made of existing facilities. For instance, teachers needing a great deal of blackboard space ought not be assigned to rooms where the blackboard space is small.

SPECIFICATION 2. The specially equipped rooms should be so scheduled that their use makes the greatest contribution to the educational program of the school.

Obviously, some of the rooms with special equipment cannot be used for all purposes. It is important, however, that maximum utilization be made of the rooms so equipped.

SPECIFICATION 3. The schedule should make possible the use of all specialized units of the plant.

The cafeteria, auditorium, and library and similar auxiliary rooms should be considered in building the schedule. Too often, the auditorium is a place used once a week for assemblies, the library only a place for the storage of books, and the cafeteria only a place in which to eat lunch. The schedule should make it possible to use these and other facilities to extend and to enrich the learning experiences of the pupils.

SPECIFICATION 4. The schedule should make provision for full use of professional community resources.

Community resources such as the public library, industrial plants, recreational facilities, museums, social service centers, employment agencies, and others have contributions to make to the total program of the school. A good schedule facilitates their use.

SPECIFICATION 5. The schedule should be so arranged that instructional aids can be used to the best advantage.

The values to be derived in terms of enriched learning opportunities are often not fully realized from the use of instructional materials and aids because their use is not facilitated by proper scheduling. In the scheduling of classes, proper attention must be given to the type of activities used in teaching the various subjects. Administrative plans should seek to make teaching aids available when they can be used more effectively in instruction. As a rule, schools have too few instructional aids. Despite this, they rarely make the best use of what they have. The schedule should take this into consideration.

CRITERION FOUR

A good schedule should facilitate an effective program of guidance.

Too often, the school handicaps the guidance program by not providing in the schedule opportunities to carry out good guidance procedures. Guidance procedures provide the essential foundation upon which the schedule should be based.

SPECIFICATION 1. Since the curriculum should provide a gradual and a continuous series of choices by the pupil, the schedule should assure its feasibility.

Proceeding from the required or core offerings in the first years of school, the curriculum should make it possible for the pupil to pursue a program which is consistent with his best interests and needs. Consequently, whenever the changing interests and needs of the pupil require it, the schedule should make a change in the pupil's program possible.

SPECIFICATION 2. The schedule should minimize interference between guidance functions and classroom instruction by scheduling a definite time for the guidance service.

Too often, counseling plans cause pupils to be withdrawn from classes irrespective of instructional losses. Sometimes, pupils miss vital learning experiences while being counseled. A fairly even distribution of pupils with free periods helps to reduce these difficulties. This specification ought not in any way restrict a good guidance program. There should be a definite effort to schedule time for guidance and to interfere with regular classroom instruction as little as possible.

SPECIFICATION 3. A good schedule should provide adequate time for counseling.

Guidance functions are not likely to be performed effectively if the duties they involve are "extra" to a regular teaching load. Teachers responsible for counseling should have this factor considered in their teaching assignment and in the calculation of their teaching loads.

SPECIFICATION 4. Time should be allowed in the schedule for follow-up work and placement.

Here, also, sufficient time must be provided if the best results are to be obtained. Follow-up studies require painstaking and objective research. Good placement requires time-consuming public contacts, much clerical work, and the careful balancing of a complex set of factors.

SPECIFICATION 5. *Choices made by pupils under guidance should be respected.*

The schedule should make it possible for pupils to obtain the program suited to their interests and needs. It is recognized that it may not be possible to satisfy all the needs of all the pupils; nevertheless, every effort should be made to see that the choices of pupils made under guidance are possible.

SPECIFICATION 6. *The schedule should be flexible enough to allow a pupil to shift from one curriculum to another.*

Adolescent interests, needs, and circumstances change; the schedule should make it possible for these changes to be recognized. It should be possible for pupils in curricula not leading to college to change to a college-preparatory curriculum if their interests and aptitudes, determined through guidance, point to the wisdom of such change.

SPECIFICATION 7. *Each pupil should have the benefit of a continuous counseling service during his educational career.*

As has been indicated elsewhere, the welfare of the pupil should be of paramount importance in any school program. Because the pupil's interests and needs are not static, it is important that counseling service be available to him throughout his school career whenever the need for such service arises.

* * * * *

A MENTAL ABILITY TEST—*The SRA Primary Mental Abilities*, a test battery that measures five independent areas of intelligence for students from 11 to 17 years of age, by Drs. L. L. and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone, University of Chicago psychologists, has recently been released by Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Ave., Chicago 4, Illinois. This battery covers the areas of Verbal-Meaning, Space, Number, Reasoning, and Word-Fluency. The authors have found these abilities to be five relatively independent, testable factors of intelligence. Self-scored in two minutes, the *SRA Primary Mental Abilities* is accompanied by a profile sheet on which the student may graph his test results. Norms are based on a study of more than 18,000 high-school students. The profile sheet helps the student get a better understanding of his scores, and helps him to plan his academic and vocational training in fields where he is most likely to succeed.

Science Research also has available *SRA Reading Record*. This test measures ten separate reading skills. This new analysis helps teachers plan remedial reading programs to fit the individual needs of students. The ten skills measured by the *SRA Reading Record* are: rate of reading, general comprehension, paragraph comprehension, reading a directory, reading map-table-graph materials, reading advertisements, using an index, sentence meaning, technical vocabulary, and general vocabulary. Percentile and grade norms have been established on a population of 3,000 high-school students. The test may be used in grades 7 to 12.

Record Forms for Secondary Schools

PAUL E. ELICKER

SEVERAL committees of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals have developed school record forms that now have wide use in schools, colleges, and personnel offices of employers of school graduates. All of the available school forms were adopted by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals after extensive research and tryout in school systems. The forms are now available at nominal cost.

1. *The Secondary-School Record*, a transfer certificate. (See page 40)
2. The Personality Record. (See page 41)
3. The Permanent Record Card. (See pages 44-45)
4. The new Cumulative Personnel Record available in three forms, covering a seven-year span. (See pages 46-47)

1. THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL RECORD

This revised form (see page 40) has been in use throughout the country for several years and appears on a number of admission applications of colleges. It is printed on a good quality of bond paper, standard size, 8½x11 inches. This school form is used by thousands of secondary schools in transmitting the school record of students to other secondary schools, to colleges, and to employers of school students. The reserve side contains the Personality Record described below.

2. THE PERSONALITY RECORD

This form (see page 41) is on the other side of the Secondary-School Record. It is also available as a separate form, size 8½x11 inches, with reverse side blank. Many schools use the separate Personality Record form in obtaining a rating of each student each year by each of the student's teachers for the cumulative personnel record of the student.

Paul E. Elicker is Executive Secretary of The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C.

Secondary-School Record

Name, in full _____ Sex _____

Last Name

First Name

Middle Name

M. or F.

Home Address _____

Number and Street

City

State

Birth Date _____ Name of Parent or Guardian _____

Entered { Name of School _____ Entrance Date _____ Month _____ Year _____ Was graduated _____ Will be graduated _____ Withdrew _____ Month _____ Year _____
Location of School _____

Class periods are _____ minutes, _____ times a week, _____ weeks a year. Passing mark is _____ College recommending mark _____

1. Describe your marking system if unusual: _____

2. List other secondary schools attended: _____

CLASS RECORD

Notes

If no marks are given, check. Circle marks or checks for half-year subjects.

Specify laboratory periods, variations in time allowance for subjects, or any other information needed to interpret this record. Such other information as Regents grades, College Boards, and record of a fifth year may be entered in the Extra column. If a school does not use marks, enter here an estimate of success achieved.

Subject	Grade	9	10	11	12	Extra	Units* or Credits
	Year	19	19	19	19		
English							
Lang.							
Math.							
Science							
Soc. Studies							
Other Subjects							

*A unit represents the study of a subject a full school year, four or five periods a week, or the equivalent. One unit equals two credits, unless defined otherwise.

TEST RECORD

	Grades 9 and 10				Grade 11				Grade 12			
	Test	Score	%-ile	Basis*	Test	Score	%-ile	Basis*	Test	Score	%-ile	Basis*
Mental Ability												
Reading												
Others												

*Give basis on which percentiles were computed. Include any available interpretation of tests on an enclosure.

Applicant ranks _____ in a graduating class of _____ students.

Date _____ Signature _____ Title _____

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Personality Record (Confidential)

Room _____

Grade _____

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF

Last Name

First Name

Middle Name

School _____

Town or City _____

State _____

The following characterizations are descriptions of behavior; they are not ratings. It is recommended that where possible the judgments of a number of the pupil's present teachers be indicated by use of the following method:

	1		M (5)		2	
Example SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE	Purposeless	Vacillating	Potential	Limited	Purposeful	
1. SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE	Purposeless	Vacillating	Potential	Limited	Purposeful	
2. INDUSTRY	Seldom works even under pressure	Needs constant pressure	Needs occasional prodding	Prepares assigned work	Seeks additional work	
3. INITIATIVE	Seldom initiates	Conforms	Varies with conditions	Self-reliant	Actively creative	
4. INFLUENCE	Passive	Retiring but co-operative	Varying	Contributing	Strongly controlling	
5. CONCERN FOR OTHERS	Antisocial	Indifferent	Self-centered	Somewhat socially concerned	Deeply and generally concerned	
6. RESPONSIBILITY	Unreliable	Somewhat dependable	Usually dependable	Conscientious	Assumes much responsibility	
7. EMOTIONAL STABILITY	Hyperemotional	Excitable	} Usually well-balanced	} Well-balanced	} Exceptionally stable	
	Apathetic	Unresponsive				

Significant school activities:

Special interests or abilities:

Significant limitations (physical, social, mental):

Additional information which may be helpful such as probable financial needs or work experience:

Principal's recommendation (Specific statement concerning the applicant's fitness for acceptance):

Date _____ Signature _____ Title _____

This Personality Record is available as a separate form, i.e., the Secondary-School Record is omitted, leaving one side blank.

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Prices for Secondary-School Record and Personality Record

The Secondary-School Record Blank (8½x11 inches) is printed on both sides, one side contains the *Secondary-School Record Form* and the other contains the *Personality Record Form*.

Quantity		Price
1-99	per unit	\$.05
100-499	per hundred	2.00
500-999	per hundred	1.50
1000-or more	per hundred	1.00

Personality Record Form (8½x11 inches)

Prices for this form (one side only of the above form) are the same as the above price range less 10 per cent.

3. THE PERMANENT RECORD CARD

This is a record (see pages 44-45) form covering ten semesters with a record of subjects by years. It includes a record of student activities, intelligence and achievement test scores, attendance, personal traits, and family history. It is flexible cardboard, 5x8 inches. It is available for vertical filing and has been used by a number of secondary schools as a cumulative record card.

PRICES FOR THE PERMANENT RECORD CARD

Quantity		Price
1-99	per unit	\$.05
100-499	per hundred	2.00
500-999	per hundred	1.50
1000-or more	per hundred	1.00

There is a discount of 20 per cent on all orders of \$1.00 or more on all school record forms to members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

4. THE CUMULATIVE PERSONNEL RECORD

This new *Cumulative Personnel Record* form was designed by a committee¹ that made a thorough study of cumulative record forms in use in

¹The Committee on Cumulative Records: William H. Bristow, Assistant Director, Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics, New York City Public Schools, New York, *Chairman*; Joseph G. Bryan, Director of Secondary Education, Kansas City Public Schools, Kansas City, Missouri; Joseph C. McLain, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York; Cora E. Riley, Director of Student Personnel, Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts; Ross O. Runnels, Principal, Maplewood Junior High School, Maplewood, New Jersey; Ruth Strang, Professor of Education, Division of Student Personnel, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; David J. Swartz, Chairman, Mechanical Drawing Department, Member Administrative Division, Haaren High School, New York, New York, *Secretary*; Fred O. Wygal, State Supervisor, Adult Education and Guidance, State Department of Public Instruction, Richmond, Virginia; Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C., *ex officio*.

secondary schools throughout the country and by industrial and business employers. It provides a simple and practical form for all youth in the school, beginning with the seventh grade and extending over a 7-year period. (See pages 46 and 47).

The Cumulative Personnel Record is available in three forms: *the card*, printed on both sides; *the standard folder*, printed on inside and reversible; and *the envelope*, printed on both sides. All forms are available at nominal prices.

Prices of the Cumulative Personnel Record

Three styles of Cumulative Personnel Records are available, all containing the same items, complete for any school.

Card style—size, $9 \times 11\frac{1}{2}$ inches

Standard folder style—size, $9\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{3}{4}$ inches

Envelope style—size, $9\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{3}{4}$ inches

<i>Prices:</i>	<i>Cards</i>	<i>Folders</i>	<i>Envelopes</i>
1-99	\$.05 each	\$.05 each	\$.05 each
100-499	2.00 per C	5.00 per C	2.50 per C
500-999	1.75 per C	4.50 per C	2.00 per C
1000 or more	1.50 per C	4.00 per C	1.75 per C

Purposes Served

The Cumulative Personnel Record has been devised to meet these criteria:

1. It is cumulative, showing interrelationships among items and developmental trends from year to year.
2. Data are easily and legibly entered.
3. Information recorded is concrete, specific, and objective.
4. It can be read easily and readily interpreted.
5. It is adaptable to the various types of school organizations.
6. It includes minimum data to which may be added other desired guidance records.

Information is included on such factors as:

1. Personality and family background.
2. Health and physical characteristics.
3. Achievement as indicated by teachers' marks and standardized and informal tests.
4. Interests and activities—in- and out-of-school (offices, honors, hobbies, camping, scouting, athletics, special talents, etc.).
5. Work experience.
6. Educational and vocational plans.
7. Suggestions for guidance.

PERMANENT RECORD

Last Name		First Name		Middle Name		Sex	Race	Birthplace		City	
Entered from		Date		Age		Class		Curriculum		Adviser	
Parent or Guardian		Occupation		Nationality		Address		Telephone No.			

EXTRA CLASS ACTIVITIES

Date	Activity	Honors or Offices	Pts. Crs.

INTELLIGENCE-TEST RECORD

Date	Name of Test	Form	Score	%-ile Rank	MA	CA	IQ

ACHIEVEMENT-TEST RECORD

Date	Name of Test	Form	Score	Class Norm.	%-ile Rank	Subject Age

ATTENDANCE RECORD

Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Totals
Days Present											
Days Absent											
Times Tardy											

PERSONALITY RECORD

Symbols: (1) High; (2) Above Av.; (3) Av.; (4) Below Av.; (5) Low

Seriousness of Purpose	1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	Summary
Industry						
Initiative						
Influence on Others						
Concern for Others						
Responsibility						
Emotional Stability						
General Health						
Significant Limitations						
Home Conditions	Parents Living	No. Brothers	No. Sisters	Course		
Educational Plans						
Vocational Preferences						
College or Position						Date
Credits Sent to						Date

Was Graduated	Date	Rank	No. in Class
Left	Date	Reason	

Notes

Specify laboratory periods, variations in time allowance for subjects, or any other information needed to interpret this record. Such other information as Regents grades, College Boards and record of a fifth year may be entered in the Extra column. If a school does not use marks, enter here an estimate of success achieved.

[illegible]

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[illegible][illegible]

On the record may be entered significant information which affects the student's accomplishments and behavior and throws light on his growth and development, his social relations, and his emotional behavior. The teacher and counselor may gain much information by observing the student's relationships with other teachers and other students. The cumulative record is a guidance and counseling instrument. Its purpose is to furnish as readily as possible an over-all view of the student's growth and development through his school, home, and community experiences as recorded by teachers, counselors, supervisors, principals, and others who work with him.

Specific Uses to be Served

The specific purposes to be served by this record are as follows:

1. To provide a periodic, systematic appraisal of the student's growth and development toward the objectives that have been established by the school, both for groups of students and for individual students. Many schools provide opportunities for students to sit down with the counselor or teacher and consider their records as a whole, as a part of the general guidance and counseling program of the school.
2. Many schools have found it advisable to hold conferences with parents when pupils enter the school and to explain the use of the Cumulative Personnel Record and its function as a guidance instrument.
3. There are many times when the Cumulative Personnel Record provides an important instrument for conferences with the student; such as,
 - A. When he has to make an important decision with respect to his education and vocational plans, as in (a) selection or change of school program, (b) decision as to kind and extent of part-time work, (c) decision as to whether to leave school, (d) choice of college or other kind of training, and (e) choice of vocational field;
 - B. When he has to meet some crisis or has to solve some important personal problem affecting him or his family;
 - C. When he is planning his leisure-time program; and
 - D. When problems of adjustment arise; such as (a) discipline, (b) failure in school work, (c) boy-girl relations, or (d) social adjustment to teachers, friends, and family.

What About Surplus Property For Schools?

EDMUND BAXTER

IS surplus property worth the effort required to obtain it? Has education acquired surplus in substantial quantities? What is the outlook for the future? If it is favorable, how should school officials go about obtaining surplus?

Obviously, these questions are of great importance to American education. To some institutions they have meant, or they may mean in the future, the difference between a school plant equipped to fulfill its mission and one that is totally inadequate to provide the program essential to the school community.

While a positive answer to the questions in the first paragraph already has been implied, warning must be given that surplus does not come easy. Successful surplus procurement on the part of the school official requires knowledge of the necessary procedures, a realistic approach, and, above all, continuing, persistent effort.

The War Assets Administration and other disposal agencies of the Federal government are hardly comparable to Sears-Roebuck, Montgomery Ward, and other mail-order houses which are concerned with maintaining large stocks to meet the needs of their customers. Instead, the War Assets Administration has the primary objective of disposing of its stocks and getting out of business. It does attempt to give effective service to its customers, but it should never be thought of as an organization with a complete shelf of goods. Its stocks, though large and varied, are not likely to include a majority of items which an educational institution will want to purchase at a given time. And unlike a commercial merchandising organization, it does not build up its stocks on the basis of what its customers need and what they are likely to order.

Edmund Baxter is Chief of the Education, Health, and Welfare Section of the War Assets Administration, Washington 25, D. C.

After this word of caution, which is included for the purpose of keeping this article on a strictly realistic basis and to prevent you from expecting too much, let us think in terms of what you can reasonably expect to accomplish in the surplus procurement field. There are numerous examples of educational institutions which have obtained machine tools which enabled them to institute a shop-training program; there are others who have enlarged their scientific instruction through the utilization of surplus laboratory equipment, including relatively large quantities and wide varieties of electronics items; still others have overcome the critical shortage of common-place items such as chairs, tables, and desks through procurement of surplus; several institutions located in every section of the country have acquired complete buildings both for classroom and dormitory use.

DISCOUNTS

The capital outlay for surplus items and facilities has been very small in relation to their value to the institution since all educational and public health institutions are entitled to receive discounts. These discounts, authorized by the Surplus Property Act and implemented by regulations of the War Assets Administrator, are based on the sound theory that public benefits will accrue to the United States as a result of the use of the property in the fields of education and public health. Surplus property discounts range from 40 per cent off the regular War Assets Administration prices to 100 per cent. However, the full discount of 100 per cent normally is extended only in certain real property transactions where an individual case study clearly shows that the maximum discount is justified.

Until recently most personal property items were sold at a 40 per cent discount but the most recent order of the War Assets Administrator (Order 7, WAA Regulation 14) places the vast majority of surplus personal property on a 95 per cent discount basis. A list of the categories and items available to educational institutions may be obtained through your State Educational Agency for Surplus Property which is usually a part of the State Department of Education, or the War Assets Administration office serving your area. The system of establishing different discounts on different types of property is intricate and a source of confusion in the educational field and in War Assets Administration offices. However, it is of great importance to school officials to study the lists and obtain the exact discounts to which they are entitled.

SURPLUS PROGRAM FOR EDUCATION

School executives who wish to obtain maximum results in acquiring surplus property need to familiarize themselves with all phases of surplus disposal to education. There are several avenues for obtaining the same item and one

of these approaches sometimes will lead to success when all of the others have failed.

1. *FWA*

Institutions which are nonprofit-making in character and which are certified by the Veterans Administration as engaged in the training of veterans have been extended (under Public Law 697) the highest priority available to education. This priority is effectuated through the Bureau of Community Facilities, Federal Works Agency, which places its orders with WAA on the basis of "findings of need" established by the U. S. Office of Education. Property acquired under this program is transferred from WAA to FWA without reimbursement and then to the educational institution. Since education receives this property on a high priority level and without cost, this approach is recommended as the most desirable one for those nonprofit institutions certified for the training of veterans. However, the FWA program under Public Law 697 primarily serves colleges and it is recognized that relatively few secondary schools are certified at present.

2. *Army-Navy Donations*

Legislation enacted prior to the passage of the Surplus Property Act authorizes donations by the Army and Navy of "mechanical equipment, machinery and tools" to educational institutions. This legislation has been implemented by the War Assets Administrator through WAA Regulation 19 and a transfer of funds to the U. S. Office of Education which maintains a field organization for the purpose of assisting the various institutions in acquiring property eligible for donation under these programs. Army-Navy donations to education have amounted to as much as \$20,000,000 per month, based on acquisition cost. Superintendents and principals who are not familiar with procedures established under this program should communicate with their State Educational Agency for Surplus Property or the U. S. Office of Education field representative serving their territory. Many secondary institutions, large and small, have been able to acquire valuable equipment through the donation programs and thereby have been able to broaden the scope of their courses in the vocational and scientific fields. The procedure is relatively simple and the chances of obtaining donations are good.

3. *Real Property*

Institutions wishing to acquire buildings and real property facilities should communicate with their nearest WAA Regional office. If there is a real-property facility in your community which has been declared surplus and which you feel could be utilized to great advantage by your institution, the question of awarding it to you will be based on an individual study made

by the WAA with the assistance of the U. S. Office of Education. In general, the interested institution will be required to show that it is in the interest of the community and the United States to make the facility available for educational purposes.

4. *Personal Property and Discount Sales*

Personal property in WAA inventories which may be sold to education on a discount basis includes virtually every type of equipment and operating supplies which are used by an educational institution. The fact that discounts are authorized does not mean, however, that the property will be available for sale in a given WAA office. There are some critical items which nearly always are claimed by organizations having a higher priority under the law than education. On the other hand, there are hundreds, even thousands, of items that are available and which may be bought with 40 per cent or 95 per cent off the WAA "fair value price."

The 95 per cent items can be determined by reviewing the list contained in Order 7, Regulation 14. If an item is not on the list, nor included in the categories comprising the list, the 40 per cent discount applies. It is no simple task to determine whether certain items are on the list. If you are located near a State Educational Agency office or a WAA office, you should obtain assistance from one of these offices on doubtful items. If it is not possible to obtain this service readily, your order can be submitted with the notation "less the appropriate educational discount."

5. *Donations*

WAA also makes donations of certain types of property, mainly machine tools and slow-moving items, which are not attractive to other types of buyers. As a rule you will not find the exact item you want on a donation basis but there are sometimes plant clearances and catalog "sales" of donable items. It should be kept in mind that the WAA donation program at present includes only certain machine tools and very few other items, though there is a definite possibility that other types of property later will be made eligible for donation to education.

THE CURRENT PICTURE

The extension of higher discounts to education and the launching of donations are indicative of the WAA Administrator's desire to promote and increase sales to educational institutions. Further, with the nation's production approaching new peacetime highs, there is less competition today in the surplus market, which factor improves considerably the buying position of education. There are many "bargains" every day in every WAA office for educa-

tion and they are worth the effort required. But you must put forth real effort; you must be persistent; you cannot afford to get discouraged.

Your State Educational Agency for Surplus Property, the U. S. Office of Education, and the Priority Claimants Division of your WAA Regional or Zone office are in a position to help you, and you should call upon those organizations at any time you have a surplus problem.

DIRECTORY OF CHIEFS, ZONE, AND REGIONAL PRIORITY CLAIMANTS DIVISION

In addressing communications to any of the individuals listed below, the title, Chief of the War Assets Administration, should be included with the address.

ZONE I. *Eugene Brennan, New York City, New York*

E. H. Sussenguth, Boston, Massachusetts
J. J. O'Loughlin, New York, New York
George C. Norcross, Philadelphia, Pa.
E. L. Kusterer, Richmond, Virginia

ZONE II. *D. A. Hinson, Atlanta, Georgia*

J. C. Reddoch, Atlanta, Georgia
Frank W. Vine, Birmingham, Alabama
F. M. Stroud, Charlotte, N.C.
Albert D. Bennett, Columbia, S.C.
A. L. Burdett, Jacksonville, Fla.
Christian W. Farrar, Nashville, Tennessee.

ZONE III. *J. F. Fritzer, Chicago, Illinois*

King P. Ray, Cincinnati, Ohio
Charles H. Rioch, Chicago, Illinois
J. B. Held, Cleveland, Ohio
M. L. Johnston, Detroit, Michigan
Benjamin R. Edelin, Louisville, Ky.
John J. Caragher, Minneapolis, Minn.

ZONE IV. *Q. J. Barnard, Kansas City, Missouri*

Daniel P. Ryan, Denver, Colorado
Adrian O. Buck, St. Louis, Missouri
E. J. Graves, Omaha, Nebraska

ZONE V. *J. W. Jockusch, Grand Prairie, Texas*

J. R. Parlette, Houston, Texas
C. E. Marks, Little Rock, Arkansas
P. G. Stringer, Tulsa, Oklahoma
J. A. deFuentes, New Orleans, La.
Ferd H. Rees, San Antonio, Texas

ZONE VI. *J. Walter Blair, San Francisco, California*

Allan G. Hollis, San Francisco, Calif.
N. N. Vaughan, Seattle, Washington
Ted R. Schoenborn, Helena, Montana
George B. Robinson, Salt Lake City, Utah
E. L. Bowen, Spokane, Washington
Holly Bunn, Portland, Oregon
Joseph C. Rich, Los Angeles, Calif.

Secondary School Administration

JAMES HAROLD FOX

THE SPECIFIC FUNCTION APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF SECONDARY-
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

MUCH, perhaps the most, of what has been written about the administration of secondary schools has dealt with the best ways of performing specific administrative functions. A glance at the table of contents of almost any current text will demonstrate this. It is likely to list chapters on the administration of the curriculum, extracurricular activities, opening and closing school, provisions for individual differences, audio-visual aids, office routines, and the like.

This is the usual approach to the development of a new field of study—indeed, as a rule, it is the only possible approach. And the study of secondary-school administration is relatively new—the most of it occurring within the last fifty years.

The approach is direct and simple. A great many current practices are observed and from them are culled those which seem to achieve the best results. These “best practices” are then reported for the guidance of administrators.

Without doubt the down-to-earth practicality of this approach has resulted in a rapid improvement in administrative practices. Twenty-five years ago, one beginning a principalship found little help in the literature and few college courses were available. The practices of his predecessor, trial-and-error methods, and exchange of experiences with the principals of neighboring schools were his chief guides. Today, new principals, through the literature and courses, have available a much wider range of theory and experience to serve as guides. It seems very probable that this is the main cause of the marked improvement in administrative practices during the last twenty-five years.

Mr. James Harold Fox is Dean of the School of Education, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

Nevertheless, the eclectic approach to the study of secondary-school administration has its defects. In the first place, it is prone to place too much emphasis upon frequency of occurrence. The fact that a practice is widely used is no sure criterion of worth. It is common knowledge that in many fields of endeavor errors have been widely accepted and sometimes perpetuated for generations.

Another defect is to be found in the emphasis placed upon expediency. This sometimes leads to a "short view" in determining the worth of an administrative practice. If a particular practice is satisfying to the administrator, *e.g.*, leads to decisive action, leaves no "hang-over" problems, and evokes a feeling of mastery over the situation, it is likely to be termed successful. Yet, it may not be successful from the standpoint of instruction. Over-emphasis upon expediency in administration often obscures the fact that administration can only be justified as a service to instruction. It is not unusual to find a school with a smooth-running administration and instruction of low quality.

The existence of "blind spots" in secondary-school administration points to a third defect in the approach under consideration. Current practices in school public relations illustrate this point. There is considerable evidence pointing to the conclusion that the majority of secondary-school administrators are unaware of the fundamental issues in school public relations.

These and other considerations have led the writer to conclude that a study of types of administrative functions might prove valuable in supplementing the more common practice of studying specific functions. This article is concerned with the first step in this approach—the analysis of secondary-school administrative functions into types.

THREE TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

Although secondary-school administrators perform a wide variety of specific functions, the most of them may be classified under three administrative types—management, supervision, and evaluation. Currently, there is a great deal of confusion concerning the use of these terms. Management is sometimes used as a synonym for administration. Managers without supervisory duties are in some instances called supervisors (*e.g.*, traffic supervisors at airports). Evaluation is often considered to be a part of supervision; occasionally, it is held to be a phase of management.

No doubt part of this confusion may be traced to a widespread tendency in educational circles to inflate the meanings of words—sometimes until original specific meanings are almost lost. However, the chief trouble is due to the fact that some administrative functions belong in more than one category. The

existence of these border-line functions has caused some to conclude that clear-cut definitions of management and supervision are impossible and ought not to be attempted. This would seem to be an unwarranted conclusion, for classification in other fields in the face of similar difficulties has proven its worth (*e.g.* biology, geography).

It is suggested that the managerial functions of administration be defined as those concerned with the arrangements of men and materials with respects to time, place, quality, relationships, continuity of action, and purposes. The opening of school, recruitment and selection of teachers, construction of the master schedule, office routines, and pupil accounting are all primarily managerial functions although some supervisory values may be by-products of them.

Administration of the curriculum is more difficult to classify. Since effective curriculum improvement depends as much on teacher growth as the evolution of new content and method, it is commonly considered to be a supervisory function. Nevertheless, to announce that teacher growth was the main purpose of a program of curriculum improvement and that development was an outcome of secondary importance, would leave an administrator in an untenable position. His position would be only slightly improved if he announced that both purposes were of equal importance. It therefore seems evident that administration of the curriculum should be considered a managerial function even though the supervisory outcomes often outweigh in importance the improvements made in the curriculum.

It is suggested that the supervisory functions of secondary-school administration be defined as those directly concerned with the improvement of the human resources of the school by means of the process of learning. Supervisory functions are always concerned primarily with the improvement of people and only incidentally with things. However, they include more than the promotion of teacher growth. Training the office staff, the custodial force, and volunteer lay assistants are all supervisory functions. On the other hand, promotion of pupil growth and development through learning is not a distinctive function of supervision since it is the main purpose of all administration.

The evaluation functions of secondary-school administration are concerned with (1) a continuous appraisal of the results of administration and (2) periodic reviews of fundamental policies, principles, and plans. Their chief criterion is the extent to which effective instruction is facilitated.

MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

There are three kinds of function in management—planning, execution, and control. Management planning involves those administrative activities that

take place prior to an event for the purpose of visualizing the arrangements, relationships, and controls needed to carry it through successfully. Planning functions are concerned with policy-making, the creation of program outlines to implement policy, and the visualization of program details. In these functions are to be found the greatest opportunities for democratic participation in administration. In this connection, there is a need for further study of the most effective uses of teachers' meetings, representative committees, and creative committees.

Management execution involves the specific arrangements needed to give effect to the program. The functions of management execution are essentially those of housekeeping. Management planning calls for slow deliberation, delayed judgment, group thinking, and debate. Management execution, on the other hand, requires quick judgment, snap decisions, and the expert dovetailing of details. Because of these differences, these two types of administrative functions make very different demands upon the administrator. Occasionally, one finds an administrator who is unusually successful in planning but a failure when it comes to the execution of plans. More frequently, one finds the reverse situation. It is the contention of the writer that these differences have far-reaching implications for secondary-school administration and warrant careful exploration.

The functions of management control occur after the event, or at least after a part of it. Their purpose is to determine the extent to which plans have been fulfilled. However, control functions ought not to be confused with evaluation although they may initiate evaluation. To be efficient, management controls should be as automatic as possible, be highly reliable, and require a minimum of the administrator's time for operation. Secondary-school administration lags behind most other administrative fields in the effective use of management controls. It seems likely that this area would also prove to be a fruitful area for research.

SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Supervision is essentially a teaching process. It must provide (1) an environment favorable to the growth of the personnel involved, (2) motivation strong enough to spark self-directed learning, (3) a variety of learning activities through which growth can take place, and (4) assistance in the self-directed evaluation of progress.

Supervisory functions unlike managerial functions are determined largely by the nature of the learning and teaching processes. Their demands upon the administrator differ so materially from those of management that it is difficult

to find persons able to handle both types of functions equally well. Most administrators seem to perform the functions of management execution better than those of supervision, management planning, or management control. This is perhaps due in part to the fact that a principal good at housekeeping is not always as good at the other phases of his job.

Supervision is never effective if it does not elicit the full co-operation of the learner. To do so, the benefits must be mutually shared by the supervised and the school. Supervision whose only purpose is the improvement of instruction is likely to have little success, for it makes inadequate provision for the self-interest needed to energize the whole process.

EVALUATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Objective appraisal of administration is difficult. The administrator is in the public eye. His position carries with it prestige and dignity. It is expected that his administration will yield the best results. To admit anything less may be fatal. It is not surprising, therefore, to find very little effective evaluation of administrative practices in secondary schools.

Nevertheless, in most situations there are many administrative functions that are crying for appraisal. Are faculty meetings producing the desired results? Is the most effective use being made of representative committees? To what extent are the creative committees successful? What have been the contributions of lay members of planning committees? Is there full utilization of pupil resources in planning? Is the method of delegating authority satisfactory? Do administrative conferences achieve their purposes? How efficient are the methods of handling correspondence? How interested are teachers in self-improvement? Is the school environment of such nature as to stimulate strongly teacher growth and development? Does the program of public relations promote a sympathetic understanding of the role of education in democratic society and does it promote the most fruitful kind of co-operation between the various educational agencies in the community? These and similar questions constitute the subject-matter of an adequate program of evaluation concerned with a continuous appraisal of the results of administration.

Continuous appraisal of the various administrative processes is important; but it is not enough. Periodically, the entire administrative pattern needs to be reappraised in the light of the changing purposes of the school. One of the reasons why schools find it difficult to respond to the changing needs of society is to be found in the lack of provision for evaluation of basic administrative patterns.

Scholarship Aid for Talented Youth

PAUL E. ELICKER

ONLY two of many national scholarship plans to aid capable and promising boys and girls in our secondary schools each year will be described, the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship and the National Honor Society Scholarships. These two college scholarship-aid programs for secondary-school graduates entering colleges are operated by educational leaders as educational surveys for highly talented youth.

The Pepsi-Cola Scholarships are administered through a director, Dr. John M. Stalnaker, former Dean of Students, Stanford University, California, by the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board composed of seventeen college presidents and national leaders in secondary education. The National Honor Society Scholarships are conducted by Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C., through a Scholarship Board of five members composed of high-school principals and a State Superintendent of Public Instruction. All funds are supplied by private sources and administered by boards of educators.

THE PEPSI-COLA SCHOLARSHIPS

"All over the country, boys and girls of unusual promise are denied the opportunity of college training because they cannot afford it. We have set ourselves the task of discovering and promoting the growth of some of these students who can add materially to the enrichment of the American way of life." With this as a keynote, the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board this month is inviting all seniors graduating from the nation's high schools in 1948 to enter its fourth annual competition for 119 Pepsi-Cola Four-Year College Scholarships and 550 fifty-dollar College Entrance Awards.

According to the announcement just sent by the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship

Paul E. Elicker is Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; Member, Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board; and Secretary-Director, The Scholarship Board, National Honor Society.

Board to all principals in the United States, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, this scholarship program offers many opportunities for students of exceptional ability to go on to college. The 119 seniors who win the Four-Year College Scholarships will have a wide choice in the selection of a career, for they will be able to pursue any course of study which will lead to an A.B. or a B.S. degree.

The boys and girls entering the 1948 competition must be registered as representatives of their high schools, and they also must be elected by their senior classmates as the ones "most likely to make important contributions to human progress." The candidates who win scholarships will have their full tuition and certain incidental fees paid for four years to any accredited academic colleges they wish to attend in the United States, its territories, or Canada. In addition, they will receive allowances of \$25 a month during the four academic years plus traveling expenses at the rate of three cents a mile for one round trip between home and college each year. The five runners-up for each Scholarship to be granted will receive the College Entrance Awards, each of which carries a grant of \$50 payable if the winner enters college by the fall of 1948. The total number of Entrance Awards in each state is restricted to a maximum of five per cent of the number of students participating in that state.

On Friday, November 21, all candidates will take a special aptitude test in their own schools. The students in each state who receive the highest scores on this preliminary test will then take a second examination on January 24. This will be the regular supervised Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board, the fees for which will be paid by the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board. The contestants in each state who receive the highest scores on this final test and who have financial need will win the Four-Year College Scholarships, and the runners-up will receive the Entrance Awards.

Two scholarships will be granted in each of the forty-eight states and in the District of Columbia, and one each in Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. One additional scholarship will be awarded to a Negro student in each of the seventeen southern states and the District of Columbia having separate systems for Negroes.

Winners will be announced early in March in order to allow ample time for registration for college.

The Pepsi-Cola Scholarship program, which is nation-wide in its scope, is the most comprehensive program of its kind outside of government subsidy. Endorsed by the Contest Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the program is planned and administered by a group of distinguished educators known as the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board. This

Board is incorporated separately from the Pepsi-Cola Company and has as its president, Floyd W. Reeves, professor of administration at the University of Chicago. The director of the scholarship program is John M. Stalnaker, professor of psychology at Stanford University, who has worked extensively in the field of testing and selection procedures.

Although it is just now going into its fourth year, the Pepsi-Cola Scholarship program is already sending 367 boys and girls to more than 140 colleges and universities for four years of undergraduate work, and 1,802 other students have been encouraged to continue their education through winning the College Entrance Awards. Since the program's inauguration in 1945, a total of 80,364 boys and girls have taken part in the competition, representing more than 10,000 of the nation's high schools.

"Our scholarship program is an investment in human resources," Mr. Stalnaker says in prefacing the 1948 announcement, "an investment which, according to the president of one of our colleges, is probably the most permanent and abiding contribution which can be made to society today. It is our hope that the required class election will prove to be a practical exercise in American democracy, that the scholastic aptitude test will be a helpful academic experience both to the principal and the students, and that the entire program will stimulate high-school students everywhere to consider the value of continuing their education on the college level."

THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY SCHOLARSHIPS

All secondary schools that have chapters of the National Honor Society may register for Scholarships one fourth of senior class members of the Society, who are entering college in September, 1948. There are now nearly 4,000 chapters in accredited secondary schools. Inasmuch as all members of the National Honor Society must have at least an all B scholastic average, this becomes a national contest of the most capable youth in the country.

Ten \$300 scholarships will be awarded to those who rate in the highest one hundred scores on a General Aptitude Test, administered in the schools on March 16, 1948, and are in need and deserving of financial assistance. A group of 25 alternates are selected for National Honor Society awards. The announcements of the winners are made by the Scholarship Board in May of each year.

The participants rating in the highest one hundred out of more than five thousand highly selected contestants from about 1500 schools throughout the nation have been very successful in entering college and winning additional scholarships because of their high standing in the General Aptitude Test.

Winners of the National Honor Society Scholarships may enter any accredited college, university, or junior college and are under no obligation

now or ever to any organization. Following is a list of the National Honor Society Scholarship winners for 1947-48 showing the name of the high school from which they were graduated in 1947 and the name of the college in which they are matriculated.

THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY SCHOLARSHIP WINNERS FOR 1947-48

<i>Scholarship Winners</i>	<i>Graduated 1947</i>	<i>Colleges Entered</i>
Shirley Beth Bader	Hartford H. S., Conn.	Wellesley, Massachusetts
Cornelius C. Bateson ¹	Salem Senior H. S., Ore.	Stanford, California
John W. Blattner	Mexico H. S., Missouri	Central, Missouri
Alice L. Crook	Central H. S., Wadsworth, Ohio	Bethany, West Virginia
Corinne H. Sling	South Side H. S., Rockville Centre, N. Y.	Houghton, New York
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¹Unable to accept scholarship; awarded to alternate.

²Alternate and award winner.

SPECIAL NOTICE

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Is Your Teaching Effective?

HAROLD FELDMAN

GOOD teaching requires a lot of "know-how," more than the average person realizes, and perhaps more than some teachers themselves and principals know how to utilize at the proper time even if they do know it. It is good, therefore, for teachers to check themselves frequently to see if they are doing their part in providing good instruction. The following list prepared by the author may be used both by prospective as well as experienced teachers in analyzing teaching techniques. The list likewise may be found quite serviceable for use by principals and supervisors for periodic evaluation of their staffs. The check list is herewith reproduced as it appeared in the March, 1947, issue of the *North Carolina Public School Bulletin* published by the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction.

The Check List

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD INSTRUCTION

1. *Know Your Subject.*

- (a) Know your work well enough to gain the students' confidence.
- (b) Keep up to date on newest developments.
- (c) Know which material is most difficult for students.

2. *Know Your Students.*

- (a) Find out as much about them as you can before the class meets.
- (b) Know how your material fits in with their experience, needs, and interests.

3. *Be Prepared.*

- (a) Know exactly what you are going to cover.
- (b) Know how and in what order you intend to teach your material.

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4. *Arouse and Maintain Interest.*
 - (a) Show enthusiasm for your subject.
 - (b) Use frequent questions.
 - (c) Make your teaching personal.
 - (d) Use showmanship (*i.e.*, variety and unusual methods of presentation).
 - (e) Tell stories and actual experiences.
5. *Motivate the Learners.*
 - (a) Make them *want* to learn.
 - (b) Show them why the things you teach are important.
 - (c) Show them the future need and use of what they learn.
6. *Follow a Clear-cut Organization.*
 - (a) Give a preview at the beginning of each lesson.
 - (b) Present ideas one at a time in a logical step-by-step order.
 - (c) Keep together topics that are related.
 - (d) Use summaries at various points in the discussion and at the end of the lesson.
 - (e) Briefly outline the content of the following lesson at the end of each session.
7. *Keep Things Simple.*
 - (a) Use simple words and short sentences.
 - (b) Introduce technical terms gradually and explain what they mean.
 - (c) Tie the material up with everyday experience and use familiar examples.
8. *Pace Your Presentation Properly.*
 - (a) Go slowly enough for the students to understand the material.
 - (b) Change the pace according to the difficulty of the material.
9. *Use Emphasis.*
 - (a) Repeat for emphasis.
 - (b) Use questions to make important points stand out.
 - (c) Use the voice to give emphasis (such as pausing before and after all important points, increasing voice volume, and talking slowly).
10. *Use Humor Occasionally.*
 - (a) Enliven your teaching from time to time with humor.
 - (b) Choose humorous stories or comments that add to the interest of the lesson.
11. *Make Effective Use of Your Voice.*
 - (a) Speak clearly.
 - (b) Pronounce all words correctly.
 - (c) Speak loudly enough.
 - (d) Speak slowly enough.
 - (e) Vary the sound of your voice to avoid monotony.

- (f) Speak with authority and confidence.
- (g) Direct your voice at the class rather than to the blackboard or equipment.
- (h) Avoid speech mannerisms (such as "uh, uh . . ." and "now, uh . . .").

STEPS IN GOOD INSTRUCTION

1. *Make Detailed Preparation.*

- (a) Have all necessary equipment ready before the class meets.
- (b) Use a "lesson plan."
- (c) Have a clear and specific purpose for your lesson.
- (d) Have a list of materials needed.
- (e) Have a teaching routine outline that shows the order in which units are to be taught.
- (f) Plan beforehand when and how instructional aids are to be used.
- (g) Make plans beforehand for practice periods (drill).
- (h) Know the level of skill expected of students by the end of the session.
- (i) Provide for a summary and review at the end of the lesson.

2. *Make an Effective Presentation Through Explanation.*

- (a) Make the fullest possible use of instructional aids (models, charts, and films).
- (b) Make your own instructional aids when they are not available.
- (c) Tie up the aid with teaching and do not use it as a substitute for teaching.

3. *Make an Effective Presentation Through Demonstration.*

- (a) First, show the whole operation briefly.
- (b) Then, show it one step at a time.
- (c) Always explain what you are doing while demonstrating.
- (d) Always explain why you are doing it as you are.
- (e) Have in mind a clear-cut, step-by-step break-down of the operation.
- (f) Go slowly so that all steps of the operation can be clearly seen and understood by the students.
- (g) Emphasize "key points."
- (h) Demonstrate exactly how you want the job done.
- (i) Repeat the operation as a whole and step by step.

4. *Make an Effective Presentation Through Questioning.*

- (a) Make the questions friendly.
- (b) Use questions to check the progress of students and to guide your own teaching.
- (c) Ask questions before indicating the persons to answer them.

5. *Have the Students Try Out the Skills They Have Learned.*

- (a) Make certain that the students perform the correct way during early practice.

- (b) Stay with the students after correcting them long enough to make sure that the right way has "taken hold."
 - (c) Emphasize accuracy rather than speed during early practice.
 - (d) Have the students become familiar with complex operations one step at a time.
 - (e) Have students explain their performance during early practice.
6. *Follow Through to Check on the Skills Students Have Learned.*
- (a) Often check the students' performance to see that they do not develop bad habits.
 - (b) See that they do not "level off" too soon in their improvement.
 - (c) Make certain that they develop the best knacks and fine points of the job.

PRINCIPLES OF MOTIVATION

1. *Make Material Interesting.*
- (a) Make your teaching interesting and appealing.
 - (b) Make the job seem real and worth while.
2. *Make the Learners Aware of Their Progress.*
- (a) Establish a concrete goal (*i.e.*, something definite to work toward).
 - (b) Know how much to expect from the students.
 - (c) Inform students of their progress.
 - (d) Make effective use of individual and group competition.
 - (e) Show a genuine interest in the progress and welfare of your students.

IS YOUR TEACHING EFFECTIVE?

3. *Use Praise and Reproof Effectively.*
- (a) Use praise to encourage students.
 - (b) Make both praise and reproof refer specifically to jobs done well or poorly.
 - (c) Accompany reproof by praise for those aspects of the job that have been done well.
 - (d) Always accompany reproof by a clear explanation or demonstration of what should be done.
 - (e) Give reproof promptly and then consider the matter a closed incident.

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High School English for Veterans

IREDELL AUCOTT

WHETHER the veterans' accelerated program in Philadelphia can be termed a phase of adult education depends upon several considerations. The ex-servicemen and women, the pupils of the school, are adult in years and experience. They approach their studies with seriousness; they grasp and assimilate facts and ideas as adults might; their attitude and behavior have the dignity and purposefulness of adults. But what they study is high-school science, history, English. They are preparing for college with youthful enthusiasm, somewhat dampened just now by difficulties in getting into college. They measure, to a great degree, each lesson learned by its value in assuring them entrance to professional or pre-professional schools and in helping them to master the studies there.

They left their classrooms and books some years ago to learn a trade that was temporarily of the greatest importance. They put on more than years in the execution of that trade. Now they have stepped back into the classrooms, adults in years and experience, to take up where they had left off. They are high-school boys again. Confused at first, suspicious perhaps, doubtful, worried, hopeful, in many ways appealingly immature, they have dropped the curtain upon their war experiences and entered into a new-old drama and must learn new roles and conform to new characterizations. They are adults; they are boys. Their education must mold itself to them. Their schooling requires a different approach from pupil and teacher in methods of study and instruction—a different school. It is of that school that this article concerns.

For the origin of the school and its growth to national significance only this needs to be said. The program, as pre-determined by Charles H. Williams, principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School, who organized and has so ably administered the school, must permit of continuous enrollment, provide

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for individual progress, and be accelerated to the greatest degree commensurate with educational safety so that some part of those lost years may be recovered. Upon these principles the school has been built and is functioning.

There is a passage in *Beach Red* by Peter Bowman that one ex-marine pointed out:

The mission is explained with a statement of general objectives, and a breakdown of the over-all expectation into unit missions. To these are added annexes and outlines of alternate procedures.

"That," the boy declared, "sounds like a description of how we learn English." And he pointed to his mimeographed outlines, stapled into booklets, and ringed into his notebook. Mathematics, science, social studies, French, English courses have been outlined with statements of general objective and broken down into units, each with its immediate objective and activities clearly explained. From hour to hour, week to week, the pupil knows just what to do, and his teacher is beside him to show him how if necessary. His textbooks explain much; his practices and drills and reviews and tests are in his hands or nearby. His progress depends upon himself, not his class. He can see himself growing. He rejoices in his growth. He is encouraged, and college which once seemed so shadowy and remote now looms immediately before him. He knows his mission and objectives, and there is no jungle ahead but a clear path which he may follow as fast as his ability permits.

CHANGES ARE IMPERATIVE

To make such progress possible some changes in the traditional high-school plan were necessary. In the first place there are no "classes," nor class instruction. The pupil is enrolled in English, shall we say, as a member of Mr. X's group. He is one of ten or twelve who meet in room 309 from 11 to 12. The other boys—and some girls—in the room are in different high-school grades and in different stages of progress within those grades. Another teacher has herded his sheep on the other side of the room, but there is no gulf fixed between. That other teacher is just as willing and able to help when needed as is Mr. X. Each teacher knows he cannot teach but only help to learn; and he is there as adviser, counselor, friend to do just that. The pupil soon learns that, though he may depend on any help needed, he is "on his own" to a great part and proceeds accordingly. Diagnostic tests show him his weaknesses; his outlines and books show him what to study or review. Mastery tests indicate that the one objective is reached and he proceeds to another. So, with Mr. X beside him "to warn, to comfort and command," he learns to budget

his time and efforts, to be sure of himself, to proceed carefully, and to master one unit before attempting the next.

The content of his English course is far from revolutionary. He studies grammar, from parts of speech to accepted usage of words and sentences; he learns the conventional correctness of comma and semi-colon and capitalization; he learns or reviews the building of paragraphs to and from the topic sentence, how to plan and write compositions of various forms; he adds new words to his vocabulary, and learns to recognize, spell, and pronounce correctly, and know the meaning of literally hundreds of words that he swears he never saw before. He reads about the development of American and English literature and more intensively studies some of the poems and essays that are masterpieces of those literatures. He becomes acquainted with great writers and at least the names of some of their works. Outside of class he reads novels, plays, biographies, and writes his reactions to them. He has access to a good library and an excellent librarian, to magazines and books of reference, and to sympathetic advice and guidance. In short, he studies and learns and prepares for further progress just as he would have done if he had stayed in school—except that he moves faster and at his own rate of speed and is, generally, considerably more serious.

Several problems require his solution—and the teacher's. He "never could spell," like his counterpart in the regular school. He can't understand Shakespeare and doesn't see why an engineering student should struggle through *Macbeth*, anyhow; nor why he is elected to write two-hundred words on character development in *Vanity Fair*. He demands to be shown the necessity of *who* or *whom* or *lie* or *lay* or why *had gone* rather than *went*. Writing original compositions is boring and time-consuming, but he grins as he is required to write most of his compositions in school. He knows, from experience or hearsay, that his teachers have been startled many times by the similarity of a pupil's article to an Ernie Pyle incident or something in the *Reader's Digest*. He is very amenable, however, and has sufficient trust in his teacher's judgment to do, and do well, some tasks in which he can see no immediate or future value. The teacher endeavors to fit each piece into its proper position and explain the why and wherefore of the parts in the whole.

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE COURSE

Proceeding then from unit to unit in grammar, from unit to unit in composition, *et cetera*, the pupil completes the required work for the grade. He must remain in each grade for a minimum of thirty hours; but usually, particularly when entering in the upper grades, he needs more time. What he must

do within his thirty or more hours has been to some extent arbitrarily decided by the department in writing the course. Since one objective is correctness of usage, during his stay in school he must become familiar with all the grammar that is considered essential to such correctness. Four divisions have been made for the four grades: knowledge of parts of speech; parts of sentence, that is, the subjects, predicates, complements for English 5; distinction among phrases for English 6; correct usage of pronouns in case and agreement for English 7; correct usage of verbs in tense and agreement and of adjectives, adverbs, for English 8. He learns to punctuate and capitalize as the needs arise. At the end of English 8 he is supposed to be able to place high in a co-operative English test, O.M. for example, and to be able to write without error in punctuation, sentence structure, or grammatical form.

Interdependently he has been required, again arbitrarily, to write at least six satisfactory compositions for his thirty hours, and at least two book reports on outside reading, with increased fluency, clarity, and forcefulness. Such a course, naturally, does not correspond exactly with what he has done in his previous high-school days. He may enter in English 7 and be required to review or study the content of English 5 or 6. Or he may enter in English 5 and show definite ability to do the work of that grade and of the grades ahead as well. The requirements are elastic and flexible, and he need not do again what he has already mastered. There is plenty of other work which he has not done and which must be done to fit him for college.

EFFECT OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

It is only sensible that within limits of good educational judgment, the course the pupil covers is influenced by the demands of college entrance examinations. But the influence is in the areas of instruction, not in definite answers to definite questions. A rather complete understanding, not mere knowledge, is the objective. Since one well-known technical college, for example, asks in its examination for definitions of passive voice and examples of the subjunctive, the pupil learns much that is to be known about the verb in its entirety by the time he is ready to take that examination. (The French teacher, incidentally, would have him "learn his verb" at once, for obvious reasons). Since a wide literary acquaintance is required in some examination—"Name eight of Shakespeare's plays, and their leading characters"—attempts are made toward acquiring at least some formal knowledge of periods and writers.

In every requirement of the course, however, understanding and cultural development, personal improvement of over-all ability in appreciation and self-expression are the criteria. If a boy is trying for a specific college and its pecul-

iar requirements are known—time permitting—he is tutored to pass, but certainly not at the expense of what the department and principal consider worth while. He is made familiar, too, with various kinds of standard tests and the time limits, *etc.*, of such. It is no mean acquirement to be able to face with some equanimity a standard test and a proctor with a stop-watch or to be able to roll up one's sleeves and get to work on a composition of definite length on a definite subject and complete it within a definite time. Such skills may seem to cater too much to the college authorities. The pupil, however, has college entrance as his immediate goal and his success or failure in life may be at stake. The staff does not consider this the proper time to argue, even though at times they may question the value of some requirements.

What the graduates have done and are doing in college is part of the record. An almost phenomenal number have been able to enroll even in such crowded times, and their success compares very favorably with that of graduates of the best high and preparatory schools. Reports of these successes continually reach the school with letters of appreciation and commendation. The staff are proud of their school and their pupils and get their greatest reward from the knowledge that the program is a real success in saving able and willing boys many years of effort and helping them to recover or gain what their war years withheld or interrupted. "Send him to the Veterans Accelerated Program," advised the Dean of Admissions at Harvard University to one of its graduates whose son's preparatory work had been interrupted by three years in the Marine Corps. "I believe it's the best preparation he can receive." Such is but one of the indications that continuous enrollment, individual progress, and acceleration have proved as practical and successful as Mr. Williams believed they would be.

* * * * *

WIDER USE OF FILMS—A special study of the role of public libraries in promoting wider use of noncommercial films is being undertaken by the Public Library Inquiry in co-operation with the Twentieth Century Fund. The study will also examine the present methods of distributing and exhibiting noncommercial films and analyze possible new channels. The film project is a part of a comprehensive two-year survey of American public libraries, financed by a grant of \$175,000 from Carnegie Corporation of New York and conducted by the Social Science Research Council. The purpose of the survey is to appraise in sociological, cultural, and human terms the extent to which the libraries are serving as centers of community enlightenment and to assess their actual and potential contribution to American society.

Suffern High School Graduates Enter Teaching

HELEN E. WANAMAKER

IT has been proved that young people will still consider the teaching profession a desirable one if an adequate presentation is made. In Suffern High School, fifteen of the one hundred and eight in the graduating class have chosen teaching as their profession and have been admitted to teachers' colleges or will major in education at a liberal arts college. In order to convince youth that teaching offers a satisfactory career, it is necessary for a community to offer certain inducements. First, the students in high school must be sincerely convinced that the teachers with whom they daily come in contact are leading normal, wholesome, satisfactory lives. This presupposes an adequate salary schedule in the community and a community point of view which allows teachers to enjoy the normal pleasures and take part in the normal activities of wholesome community life. There cannot be a liberal standard for parents and a narrow, restricted code for teachers. It presupposes a school system where teachers are secure in their positions and as happy in their work as people engaged in other kinds of businesses. Young people are quick to know and feel community attitudes, for these attitudes they encounter daily and hourly in their own homes and among the associates of their parents and friends. Only if they feel that the community holds the teacher in respect will they listen to the points used to sell the teaching career to a high-school student.

Throughout New York state and throughout the nation as a whole, there is a serious shortage of candidates planning to enter the teaching profession. In the mad rush to enter college, caused by the interruption of normal college enrollment during the war years together with the increase in enrollment brought about by the education benefits of the GI Bill of Rights, the teacher training institutions alone, of all the institutions of higher education, reported diminishing enrollments. Serious concern is felt for the future of both

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elementary and secondary education unless this trend can be reversed. New teachers must be found to replace those who reach each year the age of retirement and those who have left the profession during the war years and who are not returning to it. In addition, still more teachers are needed to meet the demands which will shortly be felt in our school systems caused by a greatly increased birthrate and hence, an expanded school population.

TEACHING HAS ITS COMPENSATIONS

One of the points which can be stressed, especially in this period of high costs in education, is the comparatively low cost of teacher education. Many students otherwise unable to finance a college education can make shift to attend a teachers' college. Not only are tuition costs little or nothing, but college life is scaled to a more economical pattern than is customary in many of the privately endowed colleges and universities. Again, entrance requirements in many teachers' colleges are more flexible and allow for a more diversified course in the secondary school, without sacrificing quality, than do many other colleges. Many teachers' colleges are today featuring a rich program of extracurricular activities, knowing that teachers must be men and women who are versatile and able to meet community needs in more than one field of activity. This makes a teachers' college an interesting place in which to live and work.

Suffern Students Interested in Teaching Visit Teachers' College



Then, again, since they are so close to it, young people take education too much for granted and do not realize what a "big business" it really is. Well acquainted, as they are, with one school, familiarity dulls their realization of the importance of education on a state-wide or nation-wide scale. Something should be done to "glamorize" education, to build it up as many phases of war effort were built up. This is justifiable if education is as important in preserving and advancing the ideals of democracy as we were led to believe a few short years ago that it was. In Suffern High School, the students who were interested in education as a career were taken upon an education guidance tour, just as the students who were interested in other occupations were given opportunities to observe the work in which they were interested. A local automobile dealer and the supervising principal each furnished a station wagon and the students were taken on a two-day trip. Starting from Suffern on Sunday afternoon, they were driven to State Teachers College at New Paltz. Here they were met by members of the faculty and by two former students of the high school who were already students at New Paltz. They visited classrooms, laboratories, and the practice school. Then they were taken to the student living quarters and saw dormitories, the student lounge, and the recreation room. They were told of student traditions, taken to a window and shown a distant mountain "where all freshmen are taken for a mountain day." There was time for only a brief tour and then the party drove on to the state capital where they had reservations in one of the leading hotels. After dinner and a brief sight-seeing tour of the city they retired for the night.

TEACHERS COLLEGES VISITED

In the morning, they went first to State Teachers College in Albany, where again they were met by two former fellow students who are in training there. They toured the college buildings and then hurried to the State Education Building. Here arrangements had been made for them to meet the Commissioner of Education, Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, who posed for pictures with them in his office and in the conference room of the State Regents. Next they visited the Department of Examinations and Testing. They saw the examination papers for the June examinations, already put up in the familiar envelopes awaiting shipment to Suffern High School and to all the high schools of the state. They went to the Department of Records and were allowed to see how records were kept and filed. The clerks in this department obligingly allowed the students to see their own records, as well as file after file of records which have been kept for years.

Dr. Warren Knox, supervisor of secondary education, Dr. Frederick Moffatt, supervisor of elementary education, and Dr. Harrison VanCott, assist-

ant commissioner of education, each received the party for a few moments, explained briefly some phase of the state educational system, and expressed their interests and good wishes for the success of these new recruits to the profession. After a very brief tour of the museum in the State Education Building the students left, manifestly impressed by what they had experienced. As one expressed it, "It is all so much bigger than I thought."

Those planning the tour felt that it would be incomplete without introducing the students to the New York State Teachers Association which they will undoubtedly join as teachers. So, the next stop was at the State Teachers Association Building. Here they met the photographers again and were photographed with Dr. Arvie Eldred, the executive secretary and his staff. Dr. Eldred explained the work of the Association and gave each one the current copy of the Association journal and a copy of the centennial booklet, *A Hundred Years of Education in New York State*. Luncheon followed in Pierce Hall, one of the dormitories of Albany State Teachers College. Dr. Eldred, Dr. Cooper of the Department of Teacher Certification, and Dean Nelson of Teachers College were hosts. Some of the students rated this as one of the outstanding experiences of the trip. As is quite customary, the educators talked shop, and the new recruits found this to be "thrilling."

In the afternoon, a quick trip was made to Russel Sage College in Troy. Here more pictures were taken. The students talked to the dean and got an impression of a privately-endowed liberal arts college where it is possible to secure teacher training. Late in the afternoon the party turned homeward. If the boys and girls were downcast at the thought of the careers of teaching that awaited them, the fact was not apparent; it was a gay trip with plenty of songs and laughter, but every now and then a remark or question would show that the impressions they had received were vivid and were the basis of deep consideration.

There has been in many places the feeling that only very serious students, who perhaps are unable to excel in normal activities turn to teaching as a profession. This group of students proves that the theory is false. The group included some of the most popular and attractive young people in high school. The president of the band, the head cheerleader, two of the outstanding members of the school dramatic society, and one of the school's outstanding musicians were among those in the group. One of the boys was a veteran who has returned to the school to finish his high-school course and who will then go into teaching. One of the girls was an outstanding honor pupil of the class and one of the boys was an outstanding athlete. They all have intellectual ability and attractive personalities. As far as one can judge they are

the kind of people who could succeed in a great many different fields. They have chosen teaching. Within the broad field of this profession they believe there is room for each to exercise his particular talent. Some will teach small children. Some wish to teach physical education. Two will become school librarians. Two wish to teach music. Others wish to teach particular academic subjects. They are looking forward to four happy years in college and then to interesting and useful careers. Is it not the obligation of the people of the state to offer them schools in which they may put forth their best efforts; teaching situations which will give them the maximum opportunities for success in their chosen profession; a sufficient wage to give them reasonable financial security; and an opportunity to participate in normal and wholesome community living? The teaching profession has much to offer. With a very little effort on the part of the people of this state or any state, talented, alert young people could be recruited who would bring new leadership and new inspiration to one of the greatest of the vocations of all time.

RADIO SCRIPTS ON THE GERMAN PROBLEM.—The Society for Prevention of World War III announced a new series of 15-minute radio scripts on the problems of postwar Germany. How can we make sure that Germany will not be the states (without interference in educational affairs of states) to strengthen series present in vivid, dramatic form the background of German history, the rise of militarism, and the reasons underlying Germany's two attempts at world conquest. In order that each script may be timely, the series will be released at intervals throughout the year, beginning about October 1. They can be used on or off the air. They may be used for club meetings, school assemblies, radio workshops, community centers, church organizations, and veterans' groups. For free copies, write the Radio Department, Society for the Prevention of World War III, 115 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP.—U. S. Commissioner of Education Studebaker believes that the Federal government can and should assist the states (without interference in educational affairs of states) to strengthen education for democratic citizenship. This will be done by employing professional specialists in the U. S. Office of Education to work with co-operating schools, school systems, and colleges through institutes, conferences, publication of material, and demonstration teaching designed to improve social studies teaching, particularly in high schools and colleges. Dr. Studebaker plans to concentrate on developing: an understanding of the meaning of democracy, its history, its practice, and its continuing development, *together with the dangerous alternatives posed by totalitarian governments*; fundamentals of national responsibility and power, including world geography and its relation to war potentials and to the economic and strategic foundations of an enduring peace; and understanding of the United Nations, its organization, accomplishments, and future possibilities.

An Evaluation of Integrating the Assembly with Curricular Activities

LAWSON H. RICHARDSON

IT is recognized that a fundamental characteristic of a satisfactory school is that of providing instruction and guidance which will contribute to the growth of the individual in a democratic environment. Coexistent with this high type of instructional service, the time devoted and the methods and procedures employed must be adequate to the provision of achieving the greatest amount of good for the greatest number.

The rapidly changing conditions of the age and the increasing need for a better educated citizenry make it necessary to modernize the assembly commensurate with other aspects of the secondary school. It is a generally accepted principle that people should be taught to do better those things that they are going to do in life anyway. If the foregoing principle is an integral factor of a school's philosophy, then the assembly may be properly designated as a meeting place of the citizens of the school community to work on common problems and to share mutual interests and experiences.

The assembly makes the student realize he is a part of the school community. The meeting of all the students as a group with common interests causes them to assume their identity with the school. The feeling of belonging is what unifies a school and builds a wholesome spirit. This combined feeling of identity and belonging has the psychological effect called morale.

ASSEMBLY OUTGROWTH OF CURRICULUM

An assembly is to be thought of as the central agency of all scholastic action. The students are not mere spectators and "sitters," but active participants in the program.

Our school no longer adheres to the traditional "Chapel Exercise" or "Formal Morning Opening," nor do we use the assembly mainly for extracurricular purposes. Much progress has been made toward integrating the work

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of the assembly with the regular curriculum. The programs grow out of classroom activities and situations. All programs are built around current problems and issues of world-wide significance. The social, political, and economic problems that determine the present-day world situation are discussed in an understandable way by the students. The aim of the discussion is to note the social, economic, and political effects, internationally, nationally, and individually. The enthusiastic response of our students makes us believe that to overlook the forum-type assembly is to deny them a great social and educational opportunity.

We have the "Open Forum" type of assembly each Friday of every week—just prior to the noon hour. We have found the results to be most satisfactory. Our first concern is to provide and make current magazines, maps, visual aids, and other types of research materials easily available. Plans for the program originate in the headmaster's office. Each member of the faculty assumes the directorship of the weekly program at a stipulated time. The director decides on the number of timely topics to be discussed during the one-hour period. Among these topics, one or two will be considered the most vital and important. Topics to be discussed are assigned to the necessary number of students by the first-period home-room teacher upon his receipt of selected topics from the director. This is cared for as early in the week as possible. The assignment to the pupil is made on the rotation system, so that by the end of the year the majority or all students have had the opportunity to speak from the stage. The director appoints one or two students to do extensive research on the vital problem or problems, and to give a brief recapitulation at the conclusion of the discussions from the stage. The director also designates a student to act as chairman for the week. The possibility of obtaining an appropriate film is given considerable thought during the formation of the program. The type of film may be a sound, silent, or filmstrip. We prefer a 15- to 20-minute sound film which parallels the content of our program topics. The nature of the film may be one to portray an over-all lesson for the entire program or it may be one to supplement one or two phases of the program. The State Film Library, State Department of Education, is a source for educational films.

No film should be shown before previewing it. Our student projectionist, who is appointed by the director from among our several licensed projectionists, is in the projection booth at an appointed time to offer the preview showing. The same projectionist is also the operator for the main showing of the film.

At the conclusion of the recapitulation, the chairman opens the meeting to the student body. Opinions may be voiced and questions may be asked of the speakers. The meeting takes on a lively and interesting atmosphere, with many opinions expressed and serious questions asked. An earnest attempt is made to

limit each student to not more than two questions. This plan is adopted for the purpose of giving as many students as possible an opportunity to participate within the time limit. The assembly is dismissed immediately at the end of the one-hour period.

During the past year our forums have discussed various present-day problems arising in the science, vocational, language, and social science classes. Such matters as these have been treated in the forum sessions: compulsory military training; The United Nations; our relations with Russia; conditions in China, Japan, England, India, Palestine, Mexico, Spain, and the United States. Numerous matters relating to our own state and city are also treated.

At the forum the speakers are encouraged and usually required to relate their talks from memory. They have the option of speaking with or without the use of our public address system. A typical Open Forum program is outlined below. (Note that no announcements are made in the assembly):

PROGRAM

1. Song, <i>America</i>	Student body, Led by a student
Pledge To The Flag.....	Student body in unison
(Each student salutes the Flag during recitation).....	5-min.
2. Film	15 "
3. The New Labor Bill	2 "
4. Significance of the Congressional Attitude Toward Relief for Europe....	5 "
5. The Palestine Problem	2 "
6. Significance of the Palestine Problem	2 "
7. Democracy in Japan	2 "
8. Traditional Policy in Japan	2 "
9. Significance of the Japanese Situation	2 "
10. The Problems in India.....	3 "
11. Our Relations With Mexico	2 "
(Different students discuss each of the above topics)	
Recapitulation (Palestine and Indian Problems) A student.....	5 "
Forum	10 "

DISMISSAL

This type of an assembly motivates the curricular activities and points the way to action without teachers dominating the assembled group. The forum is a medium through which students are educated to be courteous to the performers and to the members of the audience. The discussions of the world situation, by the students, wisely guided, tend to develop intelligent public opinion. This type of assembly has definite educational values with respect to training for emotional life, community welfare work, leadership, personal conduct, responsiveness, and group consciousness. This pupil-centered plan of assembly is recommended to all secondary-school officials who are interested in one that is not only popular but educationally valuable.

Keeping Informed About The United Nations

OLAV PAUS-GRUNT

THE question is frequently being asked as to what is the function of the United Nations Department of Public Information as far as it concerns the schools. The Department of Public Information has, as you can well appreciate, never had the idea of assuming the responsibility for educating youth for international understanding. That is the colossal task which will be undertaken by UNESCO. However, the Department of Public Information is the agency of the United Nations Organization whose task it is to spread as much understanding and factual knowledge as possible about the set-up, problems, and day-to-day activities of the international organization, and as such, it should provide information for all kinds of people, all possible age levels capable of absorbing such information.

It is obvious that one of the important groups to which such information should be given is that of the schools. This group has its special requirements and presents its specific problems. That the interest and needs of schools for knowledge about the United Nations are not theoretical considerations but very much based on reality is manifested through the large number of inquiries from teachers, students, educational institutions, *etc.*, which poured in to the Department of Public Information's Public Inquiries Section. Requests for teachers' background materials, classroom materials, visual aids; for advice and guidance in setting up courses, panels, forums, educational magazines; and for admission to the United Nations' meetings are some of the things these letters contained. A clearing house and liaison center that could answer the questions, satisfy the needs, and to some extent advise the section which produces material on what the schools would like to see done, was obviously necessary. Thus, the Educational Services Section was created. The name may seem a little vague. Perhaps, Section for Educational Liaison or Section for Liaison with

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Universities, Schools and Educational Organizations might have been more appropriate.

A few specific details about some of its activities will probably best give an idea of its functions. During the month of February, the Section arranged for visits of 623 students of all grades and age levels. Some of the groups—professors or graduates specializing in international relations—were briefed by specialists in the Secretariat who addressed the groups on important aspects of the United Nations' work. They also answered many questions raised by the groups. Representative of the groups were: educators from abroad enrolled in courses at Columbia University and students from Montclair State Teachers College, Trenton State Teachers College, Smith College, Temple University, Mount Holyoke College, and from colleges and universities in Florida, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Albany. Provision is also made for arranging meetings with groups of international students on exchange in the United States. Along with the lectures there are guided tours through the premises. Printed and stenciled materials, visual aids, and films are distributed. In the future there will also be showings of filmstrips and films on the United Nations. Groups of younger students who are particularly studying the United Nations are generally led on a conducted tour, while those of senior high-school level are briefed by senior members of the Section staff.

The Section also receives many letters; for example, in a five-week period about 1300 written inquiries and requests for materials were handled. Liaison is maintained with such institutions as the U.S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the American Council on Education, the Institute for International Education, the Board of Education of the City of New York, and many colleges and universities on the east coast as well as with the main educational magazines and weeklies of the type published by *Building America*, *Scholastic Magazines*, American Education Press, and Civic Education Service. As a matter of fact the Section has offered these magazines and weekly papers gratis subscriptions to the *United Nations Weekly Bulletin* as well as gratis background materials on the United Nations and its specialized agencies.

HIGH-SCHOOL NEWSPAPERS AIDED

From time to time the Section makes surveys of their United Nations coverage for use in the Department of Public Information. To stimulate the interest of high-school papers, the Section has arranged "press conferences" for editors of high-school papers in the New York City area and distributed from 1,500 to 2,000 special releases on these and other special features to such papers all over the country. In fact, in order to establish closer relations with the

schools of the nation, the Section has sent to about fifty of these an offer of gratis subscriptions to the *United Nations Bulletin* as well as statements on the work of the Section. It also offers to aid them in contacts with the United Nations' Secretariat. This *Bulletin* is illustrated with photographs, maps, and charts, and frequently publishes messages and statements from leading United Nations' personalities surveying the work of the parts of the organization with which they are associated. The annual subscription rate is \$6.00. French and Spanish editions are available at 15 cents and 10 cents, respectively, per copy. Another publication, the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, published by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, presents in summary form accurate and up-to-date statistical information showing changing economic and social conditions throughout the world. Each month, current figures are published on the following subjects: population; employment and unemployment; industrial production; fuel and power; raw materials and manufactures; food; internal trade; external trade; transport; finance; wages and prices. The annual subscription rate is \$5.00 or 50 cents a copy.

As indicated above, it has mainly been schools of the United States that have benefited from these activities. The Department of Public Information has hesitated to turn the Section into a liaison center for schools in the rest of the world, waiting to see whether UNESCO would be the natural channel through which the United Nations' information to schools abroad should go. However, more and more frequently does the Section receive requests and inquiries from schools and teachers in many lands—Canada first and foremost, South America, Australia, China, the Middle East, and several European countries. Where a branch office of the Department of Public Information has been established, it serves, of course, as the distributor of materials.

This is a sketchy outline of what the Department of Public Information Section has been trying to do. As time goes on, its functions will undoubtedly be increased. Further information may be secured by writing to the Chief of the Educational Liaison Section, United Nations, Lake Success, New York, New York.

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ANNUAL CONVENTION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS.—On November 27, 28, and 29 the National Council of Teachers of English will hold their annual convention in San Francisco, the first time such a meeting has ever convened in the West. The convention, which will maintain headquarters in the St. Francis Hotel in San Francisco, will bring to the bay area a large group of nationally known specialists in the field of language arts. At the convention this year particular attention will be focused on a nation-wide curriculum study.

Science, Technology, and the Secondary School

HUBERT M. EVANS

A MERICANS, one might say, are just beginning to take their science and technology seriously. Ever since the depression of the thirties, we have been steadily losing some of our *naïve* ideas. The bomb-burst on Hiroshima just about completed the destruction of whatever illusions were left over from the depression and the war. We are, as a people, now faced with the job of growing up, and quickly, for the full awfulness of the destructive potentialities of our science and technology has been laid bare during World War II for all to see and contemplate. It will do little good now to say we must lock up our laboratories and brake our technology. Nor will it help us overmuch to talk and think irresponsibly about our power, our aggressive neighbors, our "great secret." Nor yet, will yearning after free enterprise (which we haven't had for many decades), the *status quo*, or even the "hundred books" add to our stature or our maturity. Nothing less than a full facing of the facts and the trends they forecast will do. Among all the "musts" we face today, an understanding of the tremendous significance of our science and technology with respect to our social, political, and economic life, and to peace, surely stands near the top. It is to this task of trying to understand the importance of some of the facts and problems of our thoroughly technologically oriented society that we as professional people interested in the secondary school should address ourselves. Let us first sketch in some of the main features of our present industrial society. Then we shall discuss briefly the impact of science and technology on the secondary school and, finally, we will attempt to portray some of the needed changes in our policies and ways of working in the secondary school in order to meet the impact of science and technology on our culture, particularly on our youth.

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SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY CONTINUALLY CHANGE OUR WAYS OF LIVING

Everywhere we see that developments in science and technology are changing our ways of living. Continually we face new problems or old unsolved problems which have become more acute. Change is a constant feature of our culture, but its advancing front is jagged and uneven, thus creating serious lags among the various aspects of our civilization. It is indeed unfortunate that Americans know and understand so little about the problem of change in the culture, particularly how changes come about, their nature and origin. We know too little about how man changes, how man goes about making changes, how changes create new needs to be met, new conditions to be understood and controlled, the new skills, the new ways of thinking needed to meet the problems of change.

In no other area have the effects of science and technology been more profound than in the productive activities of man. Where a miner mined two and a half tons of coal a day in 1890, today with machines he gets out five tons per day, and the coal mining industry is only partially mechanized. Where it took one man a year to get out five hundred tons of iron ore in 1890, one man with machines today can get out more than twenty-five hundred tons. Where, in the year our Constitution was framed, it took the surplus food of nineteen farmers to feed one other person, today, on the average, nineteen farm people will produce enough food for sixty-six or even more nonfarm people. The developments in manufacturing and industry are even more striking. The output for workers has steadily gone up in all the major industries with few exceptions. The major cause of these remarkable changes has been in every case the result of scientific and technological developments, and the end is not yet. As a rule fifteen to twenty-five years intervene between a new development in production and the actual utilization of that development. The recent war enormously speeded up in many areas the use of the latest developments in production. Results have been almost always phenomenal. How much carry-over there will be of these developments into the postwar period is not known; so much now depends on solving the human problems involved in production. But one thing is fairly certain: we can look forward to less and less need for labor in order to produce the goods we need. These developments of course have not occurred without their effects on current concepts of work, work-day, work-year. The whole work-pattern of our culture is being changed radically and the American people are confused. How much work should people do, should the community do? Enough work to produce enough goods and services to meet their needs. This seems a simple and innocuous concept, yet it embodies a revolutionary idea difficult for people to accept. There is no need to work a twelve-

or eight-hour day if we can produce what we need in a six-hour day. It will be difficult to accept but equally difficult to disregard the fact that fewer and fewer workers will be required to produce all the goods that we need and more.

Science and technology have had marked effects on current concepts about property rights in almost every section and community in our land. Government in business, sit-down strikes, current labor-management difficulties all emphasize changes in thinking that are occurring about the property rights and property relations involved in production. Whether or not these changes and the increasing complexity of community life are to lead us to some kind of collective action on a wide front has not yet been decided. But every community in the land must look forward to such a possibility or some alternative, leading more and more to the awakening of a community consciousness, if not a community conscience.

The effects of science and technology on the service activities of man, although not always so dramatic as in the case of productive activities, have been marked. Medicine has undergone revolutionary changes during the past two decades, not only with respect to new discoveries, new techniques, new facilities, new drugs, but also with respect to the profession itself. The appearance of socialized medicine on the medical horizon is a dramatic example of changes going on within the profession. Public insistence on the equality of access to adequate medical care has forced to the front issues that would hardly have been considered a mere twenty years ago. Recreation has changed markedly from the individual small-group affair it was a generation ago to a mass phenomenon. Millions pack the motion-picture theatres daily. Thousands watch a single game. Education has also felt the effects of recent developments in science and technology. Greater leisure time, delayed entrance into an occupational status, and other factors have increased the numbers in the schools tremendously, particularly the higher grades. The need for new techniques created by new forces and problems that did not exist a mere generation ago confronts the school today.

Modern radio communications and their subsequent development will eventually enable any person in any community to be in instant communication with any other person in any other community in any part of the world. Radio, with the motion picture and the coming television, will largely replace the printed word as the chief method of communication. Our space-time concepts have undergone revolutionary changes also. The world's peoples possess a mobility never dreamed of half a century ago. Planetary distances are losing their significance in communication. The phrase "How far is it?" is gradually being replaced by the phrase "How long does it take to get there?" Jules Verne's

eighty days have been reduced to less than eight days, and we can look forward to the possibilities in the very near future of being able to encircle the earth in less than four days.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY CHANGE OUR WAYS OF THINKING

The intellectual revolution that fathered the scientific and technological changes noted above is one of the most important developments in the history of man. It began with the application of what we now call the scientific method and scientific attitude to the solution of physical problems in the environment. Eventually man invented a way to invent; he discovered a way to discover; he worked out a way to test his knowledge, his beliefs, his action; he found a way to open up new possibilities for human experience. Today these relatively new ways of thinking, new skills, are penetrating all aspects of human activity, intellectual and physical. But not without tremendous impact on current beliefs, opinions, and current thought.

Consider for a moment from an historical and a contemporary standpoint the impact of changes in man's concept of the universe around him. That the earth is round, that the sun is the center of our solar system, seem commonplace to people today. Yet what a revolutionary change in thinking such concepts must have produced when they were first formulated. We can get some idea of the nature of such revolutionary changes in thinking when we consider the furor and confusion that arose when it was demonstrated that matter and energy were interchangeable although the possibilities of this phenomenon had been in man's thinking for many years. Consider for a moment the development of the concept of relativity in physics and its effect upon our notions of mass, force, space, and time. Consider the tremendous effects that the theories of evolution and relativity are having on our current notion of absolutes, on authority, on the organization of the universe, on the social development of man, on values, on ethics, and on our social institutions. The new ways of thinking engendered by the scientific method and scientific procedures have broken their original boundaries and have swept unevenly throughout our culture. It is true in general that we in America are committed to the scientific method, but in most communities only a partial commitment is in operation. People, groups, organizations, institutions still refuse to permit the new ways of thinking to invade many aspects of their activities and thinking. Attempts are still made to solve problems on the basis of absolutes, on the basis of authority external to human experience, on the basis of emotions divorced from intelligence. This, of course, enormously complicates the solution of many urgent private and public problems.

Out of such changes created in part by scientific and technological developments are the social, political, and economic problems of today and tomorrow derived. The world of the twentieth century is man's world. The major problems are man-created problems, and will be solved only through the application of the same intelligence that created the conditions underlying them.

Such then is the character of our industrial civilization in America, tempered by our commitments to democratic purposes and processes and to the humanistic ideal. The problems inherent in the uneven development of this industrial civilization are many and severe. Objective approaches to the solution of community and national problems generated by science and technology in many cases present a real challenge to the community *mores* and ways of thinking. Every community has vested interest in its intellectual, economic, and social life. Every community has institutions devoted to the maintenance of its *status quo*. Every community contains people who would like to go back to a simple form of life, to "the good old days" when every man had a right to what he could get. New problems and new aspects of old problems must be solved, if they are to be solved at all, with the new techniques, with the new approaches that are available in the culture. The adequate solution of the urgent economic, political, and social problems in our national and community life depends in no small degree upon the kind of education that is provided in our communities. In many ways the school, and particularly the secondary school, is at the crossroads. Both must move ahead to fulfill their function in community national life, that is, to help the community and the nation to realize their fullest potentialities.

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS BEAR DIRECTLY ON THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

From what has been said, it is quite evident that human development today goes on in an exceedingly complex culture; a culture becoming more complex and interdependent as man creates new and far-reaching technological changes. One age succeeds another with such rapidity that all stability seems constantly endangered. Yet it is in such a social, economic, and technological matrix that the secondary school must operate. How have these scientific developments and technological changes affected the secondary school? How has the school reacted to this impact?

Changes in school population—The most obvious and observable impact of our growing industrial society on the secondary school is the great increase in the population of the secondary school. It has more than tripled during the last twenty-five years. Not only has the school population greatly increased

but it has become about as heterogeneous as the total population from which it is drawn. The delayed induction of young people into society brought about by the great technological innovations in our work-world has been largely responsible for this remarkable growth. And it is well that this is so because our culture is now so complex that the time required to induct young people adequately into society is far greater than it was even a few years ago. Add to the complexity of our civilization the growing complexity of the world and our interdependence with it, and one can see that the job of the secondary school is far more complex and crucial than just keeping young people in school and off the labor market.

Competition for minds of youth.—A second and somewhat less direct impact of technology on the secondary school is the competition for the attention and even the minds of young people furnished by relatively new agencies in our culture. The motion picture, the radio, the comic magazine, high-pressure advertising exert a powerful educational influence. These agencies are almost continuously available to young people for a large part of their waking time. The motion picture and radio, both products of scientific developments and technology, often set standards, foster attitudes, and put forth ideas at variance with what the secondary school is trying to teach and develop. This competition from the radio and motion picture for the minds of our young people is a much more serious challenge and problem than most schools are willing to acknowledge.

Changes in home life.—A third impact of science and technology is felt by the secondary school by way of marked changes in the home living of many students who come to the secondary school. Technological changes have greatly altered home life. The motion picture takes members of the family out of the home. The radio brings into the home entertainment and ideas from all over the world. The car, the reduction in amount of time required for housework and home chores, the increasing urbanization of the American family, and other developments appear to make it ever more difficult for the family unit to perform its most important social functions. Add to this the general economic insecurity that often threatens the home and one can readily see how it has been necessary for the secondary schools to deal with many complex problems practically unknown to the schools a few decades ago.

Changes in community.—A fourth impact of technology on the secondary school comes by way of marked changes in the community. The changes in community living are too numerous to mention. They involve such matters as transportation, production and control of energy, housing and health, on one level, and such matters as sanctions, values, and quality of living, on another.

Increased tension and conflicts.—A fifth and perhaps the most important impact of science and technology on the secondary school involves the tremendously important tensions and conflicts existing and increasing in our culture created largely by the advances in science and technology. These tensions and conflicts are in the secondary school itself and in the school's community. They are brought to the school in many forms by the students. They are intensely personal as well as social, penetrating deeply into the individual personality, involving one's own outlook on life, one's personal relations with others, one's attitudes toward every phase of living. All of us are more or less caught up in this whirlwind of tension and conflict without adequate skills, knowledges, values, and understandings to resolve them. In any society or group living, people must have certain values and skills in common. Part of our difficulties with tensions and conflicts is that we tend to rely on customs of thinking and valuing inherited from an agrarian society much simpler and less complex than the industrial society in which we are now living. We can cite the recent war as a dramatic, but tragic, example of tension and conflict on a world basis. Science and technology, as such and alone, can never solve the problem of war, can never rid our society of the tensions and conflicts that constantly disrupt the progress of man toward a better world for better men to live in. But they can be, when used properly, an enormous force for the good of man.

New resources.—Developments in science and technology, however, have brought to the secondary school resources for aiding in the creation of a better educational program. School buildings and schoolrooms have been greatly improved and made more functional. Textbooks are far more attractive, easier to read, and much better illustrated than they were even twenty years ago. The development of audio-visual aids, particularly the classroom film, has brought within reach of practically every secondary school resources that can do much to mitigate the shortcomings of the formal school program. Then too, the scientific movement in education, despite its narrowness, has provided many new insights into the learning processes and has, in some instances, produced new ways and new instruments for evaluation. It has also resulted in the broadening of content in most areas in many schools. It has thrown light on the need for relating school experiences to life and has emphasized the need for organizing much of the learning around problems of interest and concern to young people and around problems of social importance. In the field of bio-psychology a whole new area has been opened up which gives promise of furnishing many important leads for improving educational programs at the secondary-school level. But it must be pointed out that, although in general the scientific movement in education has made many important gains, there still remains a great

deal to be done. Furthermore, the scientific movement in education has not been geared as well as it might be to the problems of how teachers and administrators in the secondary schools can implement the findings from valid research. Taking the secondary schools as a group they are still far from utilizing the findings of educational research some of which has been available for many years.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL FACES MANY NEW PROBLEMS

Turning now to the job of the modern secondary school, let us see what can be done to meet the challenge provided by the needs and problems of young people growing up in an industrial society. First of all, it needs to be stressed that the secondary school has reacted to the impacts of scientific and technological developments in our culture in many ways. The curriculum now contains many more subjects than it formerly did. This is a tacit admission of the changed needs of young people. The emphasis on vocational education, on extracurriculum activities, on guidance, on liberalizing classroom procedures, on the over-all health of young people are but a few examples of how the secondary school has tried to adjust itself to the changed needs and changed conditions. But in far too many cases it has been adjustment rather than fundamental reconstruction which has been stressed even though it was and is clear that mere adjustment hardly fills the bill in many situations. The course in chemistry geared for college entrance is "watered down" to adjust it to the noncollege or less intelligent student. A new course in physical science is organized to care for the "dumb bells" who might want more science. And so it goes through practically the whole of the school curriculum.

In spite of the many good things the secondary school has done in the way of adjusting to the direct and indirect impact of science and technology on the culture and on the school, the broad picture is one of inertia, resistance to change, and more or less planlessness with no organized methods for attacking problems in a systematic and continuous manner. A major reason for this state of affairs stems from those operational policies which tend to create resistance to change and which make it difficult to carry on needed research in the secondary school itself. Briefly these policies may be described as traditional based on certain assumptions that have underlain educational practices for many years. Take the persistent notion in education that there exists an essential body of subject matter and skills which all should acquire. Apply this to science education, for example, and you have what now generally prevails in most secondary schools—courses of study or textbooks to be followed, departmentalization, separate often unrelated courses, a rather high degree of specialization,

and a "logical" sequence of learning—the "logic" being derived from the subject matter itself. Coupled with this is, of course, college preparation, so called academic standards, and a narrowly focused evaluation program. Now it seems to the writer that such school policies which are derived from and support such a program and related structures in education are, to put it mildly, highly questionable in the light of the knowledge that we have available today about young people and society. We know that hardly more than sixty per cent of the young people of high-school age are in school. Drop-outs, mainly for reasons of inability to adjust to the school program, account for most of these potential students. We are aware of the shortcomings of the traditional program even for those who are supposed to benefit most; namely, the college-bound students. We also know that the many subterfuges employed by school people to ease the present and inadequate situation, such as lowering academic standards, watering down the traditional courses, and so on, are on the whole ineffectual and really add problems rather than solve them.

We need not press this example further. It should be clear to all that many of the older policies guiding the secondary schools today badly need re-examination and overhauling. Policies which permit, if not make mandatory, such practices as departmentalization, a single educational diet of rather specialized courses, a rigid school day, competing pressures on students from a poorly integrated program and staff, the early separation of the young people into vocational, academic, and general groups, separation of school from its community, isolation of learning from life, great emphasis on the past without sufficient attention to the present and future should not much longer exert a controlling influence on the secondary school. Therefore, in the remaining portion of this article the writer would like to suggest:

1. A number of basic policies which in a modern industrial society should guide and direct the secondary school.
2. A brief description of some content materials or content strands that should be in the secondary school in the light of the nature of our industrial society.
3. A brief description of a possible method for controlling and utilizing the process of change to implement the policies.
4. A brief description of the kind of secondary school that is needed to cope with the problems of young people growing up in an industrial society.

COMMITMENT TO NEW BASIC POLICIES NEEDED

Policy making should, in the main, be carried on continuously by each secondary school. Ideally, the range of participants in the making of a school

policy should be as wide as possible. The inclusion of all members of the professional staff in the making of policies should be a minimum requirement. Some policies are more basic, more general than others and transcend the local situation. It is such policies that the writer wishes to emphasize now, particularly so because of the present and predictable nature of our industrial society.

1. The most important basic policy for a modern secondary school to establish is *one which may be described as an experimental approach to the solving of problems*. Whole-school commitment to experimentation as more or less standard procedure for resolving problems is in the writer's opinion essential to further development of the secondary school. Such experimentation would make an ally of change and would utilize appropriate research methods to determine what changes to make, and to direct and control the process of change as a way of continuously carrying forward needed curriculum development.

2. The second basic policy may be stated as follows: *Every secondary school should be a free school and should be organized and conducted to care adequately for all the young people of secondary-school age*. Theoretically, this policy is supposed to prevail today. Actually its implementation falls far short of realization. Secondary schools in the United States are not altogether free as many studies have shown. They are not organized and conducted so as to care adequately for all the students in the school or who should be in school.

3. The third basic policy supplements the second. Briefly it can be stated as follows: *Every young person of secondary-school age should have adequate opportunity to develop fully his potentialities*. It may be said that the secondary school is already committed to this policy, but only partially, even in the very best school. Yet this policy stems directly from our most basic democratic commitment—the worth and dignity of the individual. In a very real sense, it is the most fundamental social justification for the secondary school.

4. The fourth basic policy is related to and may be thought of as a part of the third basic policy. *Every young person of secondary-school age should have full and adequate opportunity to develop those competences most surely needed by him now and in the near future*. This involves economic, social, and political competences as are most surely needed by every individual in order to discharge his obligations to society and to create for himself a useful and meaningful life. In a very real and fundamental sense this policy is required by the nature of the technological society in which we live and is required for the fullest development of individual potentialities.

5. The fifth and last of the basic policies to be mentioned concerns the school and community relations. *Every secondary school should constantly*

strive to relate itself more intimately to its community. This statement of policy implies not only a full utilization of the community for educational purposes, but also implies a direct participation of the school, both professional staff and students, in community life and affairs. In a very real way, the full implementation of the other basic policies mentioned previously depends upon an almost complete union of the school with its community.

Obviously the five general policies just described are not all the policies that must be developed by an adequate secondary school today. They represent what the writer believes to be most important and most basic, the most needed at the moment for progressive curriculum development. Such broad policies should be thought of as guide lines to the development of further, more specific policies, more closely related to action, to change. For no policy, general or specific, is worth much in an operational sense unless it effects action and practices.

NEW STRANDS OF CONTENT

Turning now to the problem of strands of content or content materials for the secondary school, suggestions will be restricted to those concerning certain broad areas which have particular pertinence with respect to the impact of science and technology on our culture and on the secondary school. The writer will merely try to identify certain areas, certain problems without attempting to elaborate. He shall also dodge the problem of how a secondary school can organize its resources to work with its young people on these areas and problems. The following proposals are necessarily tentative at this time, but it is the writer's belief that the secondary school must undertake a direct study of the following areas and problems with *all* its students.

FIRST, *a direct study of the nature of technological change and its interrelations with scientific developments and the scientific movement.* This study should include such matters as the human consequences of technological change; the anticipation and control of technological change in the name of human welfare; the problem of planning in relation to technological change and its relation to patterns of social and personal thinking; and the unplanned effects of technological change on traditional economic, political, and social institutions.

SECOND, *a direct study of the great paradoxes of our technological age.* Here would be included a study of scarcity in the midst of potential plenty; the potentialities of productivity in a technological age; war and co-operation on a world scale; the individualist's and collectivist's demands on persons and groups; and a study of the need for private and public reconstruction of atti-

tudes, ways of thinking, and principles of interpretation and the need for reconstructed instruments for public deliberation and control in order to resolve these paradoxes.

THIRD, *a direct study of the personal problems of individuals related to the paradoxes in our culture and to technological change.* An adequate study of this area would include such matters as the development of more effective patterns of thinking; an understanding of the human consequences of uneven rates of change in one culture and the growth of interdependence of peoples; the human effects of uncontrolled or privately controlled technology; possibilities for controlling technology in the public interest; reassessing our moral and religious heritage; assessing elements and patterns of persistent vitality in this heritage; and reinterpreting values in the light of changed living conditions.

FOURTH, *a study of the political, economic, and social problems related to technological change.* Here might be included such problems as the persistence of preindustrial patterns of social and political control; possible new patterns and conceptions of social control and how these can be tested—optimum productivity, full employment, economic bill of rights, for example; and the potentialities and dangers of large and small scale planning.

FIFTH, *a study of those community problems most directly affected by science and technology.* Health, housing, family life, recreation, and production and control of energy are examples of community problems implied here.

PROBLEMS CAN BE SOLVED THROUGH EXPERIMENTATION AND RESEARCH

It can be said that such areas and problems that have just been briefly described hardly receive the attention they deserve in the light of the trends in the development of our industrial society. Obviously, these problems require more or less the attention of the whole school although the chief burden might very well fall on the social and natural science teachers, providing we keep essentially our present organization of the school. It may not be too much to suggest at this point that the job of working with young people on the problems just mentioned and other like problems may require a radical reorganization of our school structure involving changes in kinds of learning experience provided and how these experiences are organized. It is becoming clearer every day that come what may the secondary school can not much longer delay incorporating into its life and purposes many of the currently shunned problems and areas so vital to the full development of young people in a thoroughly industrialized society.

We are faced then in secondary education with the many and complex problems related to change—what changes to make, how to direct and control

the process of change so that the secondary school can become an institution effectively serving all young people within its province. The writer would indeed be overjoyed to be able to report adequate answers to the problems of change. But no such answers exist that can be applied in all situations. There are plans and proposals for reorganizing and revitalizing the secondary-school curriculum reported in educational literature. Proposals and plans described in the name of general education, community education, core courses, integrated programs, are examples currently in print. There are also many excellent descriptions of practices and changes in the secondary-school curriculum to be found in the professional literature. One of the most recent and most important appeared this spring as a special issue¹ of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. Here an attempt is made to build a composite picture of what a number of schools are doing with respect to meeting one or more of the ten imperative needs of youth as defined by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in an earlier publication.²

However, no matter how good and how useful these proposals and plans are, somehow they fall short of dealing adequately with the general problem of ways of working on the changes always involved in curriculum development. This, the writer believes, each secondary school must discover and work out itself or in co-operation with other secondary schools. And it could be done if every school would take seriously the first basic policy described earlier; namely, experimentation and research. In other words, every secondary school could become an experimental school and could build and continually reconstruct its program on the basis of valid research. Indeed each secondary school must eventually become experimentally and research minded if it is to implement the basic policies already enumerated and discharge its social function adequately. This would eventually mean that the secondary school would need to build a research program involving all its professional staff and perhaps even the young people and the community. It would mean an integration of research with teaching. Every teacher would become a research worker. This may sound unrealistic, but it is the only way the writer can see now for schools to move steadily ahead on problems of curriculum development. A co-operative experimental and research program is needed in every secondary school whether it be locally initiated and developed or worked out in co-operation with other schools. It is in line with the scientific temper of our time and in line with our commitment to the scientific method mentioned

¹*Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age," Volume 31, Number 145, March 1947.

²*Planning for American Youth*, Washington, D. C. National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1944.

earlier. Major elements in a general plan for guiding research and experimentation are fairly well known. Every secondary school could over a relatively short period of time develop its own general plan for organizing a basic research program. Every secondary school should and eventually must do so if it is to develop a program adequate for modern times. Such a plan might be developed along the following lines:

1. Provide adequately for a study of the nature of research and experimentation which eventually would involve most, if not all, classroom teachers.
2. Make provision for the professional group continuously to examine problems, to discover new problems, and to develop techniques and skills involved in the selection, definition, and clarification of problems on which research should be done. This process would involve in many cases such matters as periodically taking a problem census, testing the adequacy of a chosen problem by means of criteria determined by the professional group, and relating the specific problems to the larger and more general problems of which they are a part. The selection and definition of the problem is a key step in research and experimentation.
3. Make careful plans for developing ways of working on the problems selected. Such a plan should include at least the following elements:
 - a. An examination and listing of the hypotheses suggested by a careful study of the selected problem.
 - b. An examination of the testability of the listed hypotheses against the realities of the school situation.
 - c. Select the hypothesis to be tested.
 - d. Test the hypothesis in the classroom situation. This would involve definite plans for making any needed changes in procedures, methods, and content suggested by the hypothesis; a description of the kinds of data needed to test the hypothesis; definite plans for getting the needed data; definite and feasible plans for keeping needed records; plans for studying the variables and their interrelationships; and definite plans for adequate evaluation all along the line.
4. Formulate tentative generalizations based on the results of testing the hypothesis and of studying the variables in the classroom situation. Also new hypotheses may emerge that would need further research. The tentative generalizations might include statements about the changes involved in the actual research or about changes that should be made, or both.
5. Plan for publication of the results of the research. Publicizing the results of research may be undertaken as a way of disseminating the new ideas about methods, content, ways of organizing learning experiences, and so on. This

may be done effectively through educational journals and mimeographed reports, although a school might conceivably wish to print the results of its more important research efforts.

The writer has no desire to deceive anyone at this point about the difficulty of organizing and establishing a program of research and experimentation in the average secondary school. There are many practical difficulties which will have to be met and overcome. Adequate leadership must be developed. Classroom teachers will have to be trained in the technique and understandings required for research. Working conditions in the school must be adjusted to the needs of a research program. Adequate consultant services must be provided. Persistent efforts must be made to obtain public support for a continuous research program. The structure of the secondary school, particularly the administrative set-up, may have to be altered, and undoubtedly, continuous work on the problem of resistance to change will have to be carried on.

A NEW KIND OF SECONDARY SCHOOL NEEDED

In conclusion: The writer would like to indicate briefly some of the characteristics of the new secondary school which he believes we urgently need and could attain. We need today a secondary school that can capitalize on the work of the best elementary schools. We need a school where young people can really experiment continuously with things and with ideas; can experiment with group living, with personal and group planning; can experiment with projects involving their peers and their elders. We need a secondary school that through its program and its day-by-day living will insure maximum health for all its young people. We need a school that will create the conditions necessary to give young people firsthand experiences with a democratic society, a chance to study it and understand it from an historical as well as a contemporary standpoint. We need a school where young people can have adequate opportunities to get on with the job of preparing themselves for useful citizenship, able to participate in the work life, the economic and political life, the social life of their community, their nation, their world. We need a school that will make a study of change, a basic element in the program of the young people and of the professional staff. We need a secondary school that will utilize the most reliable findings from the new bio-psychology, the new sociology, the physical sciences as a basis for building its program. We need a secondary school which will constantly employ the best and most usable research methods and experimentation to find answers to its problems, to reconstruct its program, and its organization of learning experiences. Finally, we need a secondary school that knows how to work with its immediate community and with other schools and communities to gain these ends.

News Notes

CONSUMER EDUCATION.—A consumer education program as distinguished from "the consumer movement" must be the goal of educators, according to Dr. Thomas F. Briggs, Director, consumer education study, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. He advocated such a policy at a recent all-day conference held at the New York University School of Commerce. Stressing the need for such action, Dr. Briggs said: "Some promoters of the consumer movement have wanted to use the school as forums for promoting the consumer movement. I feel that we have no right to promote in the schools anything that does not have the approval of the general mass of the public. For instance, the public has approved democracy, and we should teach it."

Schools should not be used for proselyting, Dr. Briggs emphasized, adding that students are too young to protect themselves from it. "Any education that's important is dangerous," he continued. "Consumer education is dangerous and important. It is dangerous because what you teach makes a difference. You teach a girl to buy, and she buys according to what she has been taught. Our schools should teach young people to think. Since some of the most vital issues today for young people concern them as consumers, we do have a responsibility to teach our students to get the facts, analyze them, and then act upon their conclusions."—*Trends In Education—Industry Co-operation.*

RESEARCH IN CLOTHING AS RELATED TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.—Thirty-four specialists including home economists in textiles and clothing, sociologists, psychologists, and business economists from thirteen outstanding educational institutions met together last spring at Teachers College, Columbia University, in the first conference of its kind to discuss the problems of clothing as related to the social sciences and to explore the possibilities of undertaking needed research. Participants were invited from colleges which have both a strong supporting department in a social science field and a home economist interested in stimulating a joint research program in certain aspects of textiles and clothing as related to economics, sociology, and psychology. The conference, initiated by a committee of the Home Economic Section of the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, was co-sponsored by the Research Committee of the Textile and Clothing Division of the American Home Economics Association. Dr. Laura Drummond, Teachers College professor of home economics, was chairman of the planning committee.

Three specific areas of research were defined by the conference participants who emphasized the need for more information on the relation of clothing to such things as income, development of the individual, social participation, age, region of residence, occupational needs, and type of community. Exploring the first of these areas, research workers must discover what values are sought in or through clothing, what people want when they buy a certain garment, and what constitutes adequacy. Different attitudes toward "good" dress in rural communities as compared with urban communities must be considered as important factors in value variation. A study of clothing desires of children at various stages in their development must also be included. Secondly, the area of consumer practices and the problems of selection, care, use, and disposal of clothing must be investigated. Finally, research in this field must be focused on the inter-play of clothing and personality relating to child development as well as to adult problems. Studies must be made of conflicts which may arise in an individual involving personal

desire *versus* financial assets, health needs *versus* fashion, and other controversial aspects of everyday living.

These problem areas will be the subject of intensive study within the next year by the institutions represented at the conference. Work will be carried on both from the standpoint of discovering research areas which will deal with the problems under discussion and the relation of these to the preparation of graduate students.

NEW SCIENCE FILMS—The Jam Handy Organization has announced the release of two additional new films in their "Science Adventures" series for teacher use in later elementary and junior high-school classes. For details concerning these films, write to the Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan.

MARCH OF TIME FILMS—The March of Time has for a number of years been preparing and releasing 16-mm. films for regular classroom use to stimulate discussions. These films, known as the Forum Edition, have been quite extensively used during the past years. They are available on a rental basis. For full particulars and a list of the films now available, write to the March of Time Forum Edition, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York. The three most recently issued films are "The Rise and Fall of Nazi Germany" (black and white, sound—18 minutes), "The F.B.I." (black and white, sound—10 minutes), and "The American Teacher" (black and white, sound—15 minutes).

SEES UNIVERSAL ESTABLISHMENT OF JUNIOR COLLEGES—Universal establishment of junior colleges within the next decade was forecast by Leonard V. Koos of the University of Chicago. Speaking at a Workshop for Editors held at Lake Forest College, August 4, Mr. Koos, who also is director of research for the American Association of Junior Colleges, urged that "early and serious thought" be given to the problem of incorporating the junior college into the public school system.

Such an extension of the public system is inescapable, he said, citing the growing conviction that educational opportunities should be equal for all. He pointed out that technological development is pushing young people out of employment, adding that the complexity of modern life necessitates a longer period of education to fit the individual for work and citizenship.

Cautioning educators not to "tinker" with existing systems by adding two years of college, Mr. Koos said the best educational results could be obtained only where the entire vertical organization of the schools is realigned and integrated.

He pointed out that surveys disclosed that the best realignment is the 6-4-4 system—six years of elementary school, four years of junior high school, and four of senior high and junior college work. Integrating the junior college with the high school also would mean savings in funds necessary for plant and facilities, he added.—*Trends in Education-Industry Co-operation.*

HANDBOOK FOR NEW STUDENTS AND PARENTS—For the student body, the North High School Parent-Teacher Association, and the faculty of the North High School, Phoenix, Arizona, James I. Stewart, Principal, has recently prepared a 44-page handbook of information about the school. It includes a diagram of the floor plans of the building, class schedules, a calendar of important dates during the year, rules governing absences and tardiness, pertinent facts about student health, information concerning all-student participation in the school government, aids to study, helps for the use of the library, information as to how

much it will cost a pupil to go to North High School, information concerning the school's club program, and other information that will be of assistance to both the new student and his parents. The handbook is sent to parents of all new students about a week before the opening of school and is given to all new students at the opening of the school term. In addition to this general distribution of the handbook, it is also used in the ninth grade orientation course.

\$600 IN PRIZES FOR TEACHERS—Eager to assist teachers in their drive to strengthen their profession, Laidlaw Brothers, Publishers, of Chicago, is offering prizes of \$600 for the best papers submitted under the title *How I, A Teacher, Can Inspire My Pupils to Enter The Teaching Profession*. The first prize is \$300; the second prize is \$200; the third prize is \$100. Rules for the contest follow:

1. Only classroom teachers now in service in public and private elementary, junior, and senior high schools of the United States and its territories are eligible for entry.

2. All papers submitted should offer concrete and practical ideas which teachers can use in their classrooms. These ideas should suggest sound ways and means of interesting young people in becoming teachers. These ideas should suggest meaningful learning experiences in which pupils can participate. Papers must be submitted under the title "How I, A Teacher, Can Inspire My Pupils To Enter The Teaching Profession" to Laidlaw Brothers, 328 South Jefferson Street, Chicago 6, Illinois.

3. Papers should be between 600 and 800 words in length. They must be written on one side of the paper only. If typed, they must be double spaced. Hand-written papers will be accepted. Each page must carry the name of the teacher submitting the paper.

4. The judges of the contest will be three outstanding educators whose names will be announced January 1, 1948. The decision of the judges will be final.

5. All papers must be postmarked not later than January 1, 1948.

6. Prize winners will be announced April 1, 1948.

7. No papers will be returned; all papers become the property of Laidlaw Brothers. The \$500 prize-winning paper will be printed in *Book Talk*, a publication of Laidlaw Brothers. It will be offered for reprint in magazines published by state and national teachers' associations. Any fee or royalty which may be derived from reprinting will become the property of the teacher.

8. Rules of this contest comply with state and interstate regulations.

COST OF LIVING IN AUSTRALIA—American GI's living in Australia are praising Australian food prices. Many of the Americans are students at Australian Universities, technical colleges, and accountancy schools. They are paid under the terms of the GI Bill of Rights. Australian students are financed under the Commonwealth Reconstruction Training Scheme. The Americans, many of whom are married to Australian girls, say that they can manage on their allowance of \$90 a month for married men and \$65 for single men. In America, they say, they would have to supplement the allowance by working "on the side." The main reason for the variation is that food is much cheaper in Australia than in the States.

SOME FACTS ABOUT SAFETY—The following are a few facts provided through the National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois:

- A. Last year 2,600 children of elementary school age and 7,650 young people of high-school and college age were killed in traffic accidents. Accidents are the

chief cause of death among children. For example, they claim six times as many lives in the 5-14 age group as pneumonia.

B. Accidents are the greatest killer of young people between the ages of 2 and 28 years. They are almost three times as deadly as tuberculosis in the 15 to 19 age group alone, the National Safety Council says, and nearly six times as deadly as heart disease.

C. Night accidents in cities were responsible for almost two-thirds of city traffic deaths in 1946, the National Safety Council says. Slow down at sundown, because you must see trouble to avoid it!

D. Many firearms accidents occur because guns are accidentally discharged when the hunter slips and falls, climbs over a fence, crawls through the underbrush, or puts a gun in the car. Handle every gun as if it were loaded.

E. Athletics are fun, but not when they cause injury. Accidents associated with indoor gymnastic activities accounted for 23 per cent of all accidents on school premises, the National Safety Council reports. Outdoor athletics ranked second with 17 per cent.—*Safety News*.

OCCUPATIONAL GUIDANCE—Librarians, prospective librarians, vocational counselors, teachers, veterans, and others will find much useful information about careers with books in a new six-page leaflet, *Librarian*, by Alma A. Klaw, just published by Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York 3, New York. This abstract is now available from the publisher for 25 cents, cash with order. Pertinent data is given on nature of the work, future prospects, qualifications, unionization, discrimination, educational preparation, methods of entrance and advancement, earnings, number and distribution of workers, and advantages and disadvantages. There is also a recommended bibliography and an appraisal of available literature.

TEACHING HOW TO STUDY.—Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois, publishers of occupational information and vocational guidance materials, announce the publication of their new series of Guidance Monographs. *Study Your Way Through School*, first in the new series, includes discussions on efficient utilization of time, concentration, study habits, effective writing, and foreign language skills, as well as note-taking and examination procedure. The manual is written in a light, untextbookish manner and contains many illustrations. The information given is basic to all problems of study, whether elementary or advanced.

CLASSROOMS IN THE AIR—After four years of experimentation and study, Air-Age Education Research has established a "Classrooms in the Air" program, a special air-travel service for schools and colleges. "Travel has long been recognized as a basic part of schooling," said Dr. N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., Air-Age Education Director, in announcing the program. Recently many school groups have turned to aviation as the means of transportation both in this country and abroad, and new teachers are able to take their pupils on educational air trips or conduct classes in the air with the assistance of special instructors. The new plan places at the disposal of student groups modern commercial planes of scheduled airlines in the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Europe. For tours abroad, one teacher is carried free for every ten pupils.

Dr. Engelhardt explained that although arrangements can be made to take students on regularly scheduled flights or in chartered planes, the latter service is generally cheaper when all seats are filled, which means 50 passengers in a four-engined airliner or 21 in a smaller craft.

For teachers planning educational air tours, Air-Age Education Research offers an eight-point service: (1) Help in organizing units of work for classroom preparation. (2) Securing necessary classroom teaching aids. (3) Planning flights to meet the particular needs of each group. (4) Visiting classes to assist in the preliminary work. (5) Suggesting methods of financing. (6) Touring an airport before a trip. (7) Providing a special instructor to accompany the group on the flight. (8) Aiding in post-flight discussions and evaluation.

"In our experimental years," Dr. Engelhardt declared, "we have proved the tremendous value of guided air travel. We have worked with teachers in the classroom and in the air, developing a comprehensive program, enabling students to gain benefits. Now, this service is offered to schools and colleges wishing to make travel experience a part of the regular curriculum." Among the many groups which took to the air as part of their curricula through Air-Age Education Research were senior high students at New Haven Commercial High School, students in distributive education at Classen High School, Oklahoma City, who were flown to St. Louis, Dallas, and Tulsa; college girls from all over the United States who went to England, Holland, Switzerland, and Scandinavian countries, and a group of Michigan school principals and superintendents who were flown to New York and given an intensive two-day course in the effect of aviation on modern teaching as part of their post-graduate work in education at Michigan State College. Further information may be secured by writing Dr. N. L. Engelhardt, Education Director, Air Age Education Research, 80 East 42nd Street, New York 17, New York.

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES—Attorney General Tom C. Clark will be one of the main speakers at the 27th annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies to be held at Hotel Jefferson in St. Louis, November 27-29. "Training for World Citizenship" is the convention theme. A report on the Education Mission to Germany in February, 1947, speakers from UNESCO, and an extensive exhibit of educational materials for social studies teachers are features announced for the convention program.

CATALOG ON VISUAL AIDS—"Slidefilms and Motion Pictures—To Help Instructors" is the title of a new catalog of selected visual teaching aids produced and distributed by the School Service Department of The Jam Handy Organization. This booklet lists discussion slidefilm kits, sound slidefilms, and educational sound motion pictures for vocational training workshop, industrial, and classroom use. All subjects have been selected for timeliness and adaptability to current teaching trends and instructors' needs. Free copies of this new catalog may be obtained by writing to The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan.

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT PERSONNEL PROCEDURES—A three-day institute on student personnel procedures in high schools was recently held at the University of Minnesota's Center for Continuation Study. The institute was composed of people directly concerned with guidance programs and problems and techniques involved in working with high-school students. The three major topics considered were: guidance services in Minnesota with discussion of a minimum program for the average public high school, measurement with particular emphasis on personal and social adjustment, and on interviewing techniques. Faculty for the institute included nationally known university staff members and specialists in the field of guidance programs.

TRAINING APPRENTICES IN INDUSTRY—Today there are 96,000 establishments participating in 25,400 apprenticeship programs. This high mark in the

number of establishments now training apprentices, which was reached in June, was a gain of nearly 80 per cent over the number recorded for June of last year. While the construction industry has made extraordinary progress during the past 12 months in establishing apprentice training programs to supply the craftsmen needed for housing and other building projects, the metal working industry has been equally active in the development of its much needed skilled workers. Individual plant apprenticeship programs, which are mostly in the metal working trades, tripled during the year.

Reviewing the records of the different States, the U. S. Labor Department reports that Ohio now leads the nation in the total number of programs as well as in the number of programs set up in individual plants, while California leads in the number of area-wide programs and the total number of participating establishments. Among the close competitors of these two states in apprenticeship activities are: Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, New York, Texas, and Virginia.

DRIVER EDUCATION INSTITUTE—A Driver Education Institute was held at the Wenonah Hotel, Bay City, October 20-24, under the joint sponsorship of the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, the State Safety Commission, and the Automobile Club of Michigan. All-expense scholarships, except transportation, were awarded to 50 teachers by the Automobile Club of Michigan.—*News of the Week*.

ETHICS—The 1947 Annual Report of the National Education Association Committee on Professional Ethics includes a collection of codes of ethics for various groups within the teaching profession. Included are codes for principals, superintendents, supervisors, counselors, school board members, parent teachers associations, teachers agencies, and selectors of textbooks. Single copies of the report may be obtained free upon request to NEA headquarters in Washington.

THE SCHOOL WALLS ARE BULGING—An estimated 32 million young education-seeking Americans, including more than a million veterans, are jamming our schools and colleges this fall as the nation undertakes the biggest job in the history of democratic education, states the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. Commenting on the outlook for schools and colleges during the forthcoming school year, John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, emphasized that the biggest problem facing American education is still a serious shortage of qualified teachers. "We still need about one million new teachers in the next ten years and about 350,000 new classrooms," Dr. Studebaker said. "We can lick the tough problem of providing what is needed to give every American child a first-rate education," Dr. Studebaker added.

Here is the outlook for elementary schools, and colleges, according to the best information available for the U. S. Office of Education:

Elementary schools will feel the effects this fall of the first wave of the greater number of children born during the war years. An estimated 2,450,000 six-year-olds, as compared with last year's 2,247,000, are estimated as entering the first grade this year. Bureau of the Census figures show a steadily increasing number of births from 1940 to 1944. For example, about 38 per cent more children were born in the United States in 1944 than were born in 1940. Indicative of continuing pressure on the elementary schools is the fact that almost 50 per cent more children were born in 1946 than were born in 1940. According to the Division of Elementary Education of the Office of Education, crowding in elementary schools will continue for at least the next four or five years. The problem of crowding will be increasingly acute for, at least, the next two years.

High Schools, especially in large industrial cities, are expected to be severely overtaxed this fall. Estimated high-school enrollment is 6,300,000 as compared with 6,275,000 in 1946, according to the Division of Secondary Education of the Office of Education. Increasing social acceptance of a high-school education as the minimum educational requirement, along with higher birth rate, is expected to bring about an increase of almost a million in number of high-school students by 1953.

American colleges and universities have reported recently to the Office of Education that they need almost to double their existing classroom facilities. Specifically, they report they now need an additional 90,000,000 square feet of classroom space and a total of 300,000,000 square feet of classroom space by 1950. The magnitude of the expansion program faced by the colleges compares with the job of constructing an entire business district for a large city, according to the Veterans' Educational Facilities Program Section of the Office of Education. Official U. S. Office of Education estimates on college enrollments indicate that 2,750,000 students, an increase of 600,000 over last year's fall enrollment are in colleges this fall. Other official estimates are 2,477,000 in 1951-52 and 2,924,000 in 1959-60.

WORLD ORGANIZATION OF TEACHING PROFESSION MEETS IN GLASGOW—Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, was elected president of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession for a two-year term at the First Delegate Assembly of the group held at Glasgow, Scotland, August 7-13. The Educational Institute of Scotland was host during the meeting to representatives of 14 major teacher associations and observers from UN and UNESCO. A final constitution and by-laws were completed and a comprehensive program of work for the coming year was planned. The National Education Association delegation of nine was headed by Glenn E. Snow, president of the NEA. William G. Carr, associate secretary of the NEA and general secretary of the WOTP Preparatory Commission, served as secretary of the Glasgow Conference. Other officers include: F. L. Sack of Switzerland, vice president; Miss Margaret Pringle of Scotland; Mr. K. T. Ma of China; Mr. John W. Frame of Northern Ireland; Mr. K. Maj of Poland, and Mr. O. V. B. Miller of Canada. Headquarters for the new International Teachers Organization will be located at the offices of the National Education Association in Washington. A sub-office will be set up in Edinburgh, Scotland.

SAFE DRIVING—"1910 Driving Skill Isn't Good Enough Today," a leaflet published by the National Commission on Safety Education of the NEA in co-operation with the National Committee for Traffic Safety, is ready for distribution to lay leaders of 130,000 local units of 85 national organizations interested in safety. Its purpose is to show civic groups steps they may take to help their schools teach driving. "The Physical Education Instructor and Safety" will soon be off the press. Also nearing completion is an introductory bulletin to a series on safety education for rural schools.

U.N. LOOKS TO TEACHERS FOR SUPPORT—"The United Nations is . . . a young organization and depends for its primary support upon the young people of the world, the students and teachers of all nations." Warren R. Austin, American Ambassador, makes this statement in the foreword to *The United Nations at Work*, a new complete handbook of the World Organization, which will be distributed free of charge to thousands of teachers and students this fall. Mr. Austin emphasizes the necessity for "enlightened and informed democratic youth" to supply the leadership needed to assure the success of the United Nations.

Trygve Lie writes the introduction to the booklet which discusses the aims as well as the development, organization and functions of the World Organization. Included also are human interest highlights and many colorful maps and illustrations. It appeared as a supplement to the October 20 issue of *Senior Scholastic*, *World Week*, and *Practical English*. All subscribers to the magazines as well as teacher subscribers to *Junior Scholastic* automatically received a copy.

MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION REPORTS SUCCESSFUL YEAR FOR ATHLETIC ACCIDENT BENEFIT PLAN—Successful operation of the Athletic Accident Benefit Plan of the Michigan High School Athletic Association is indicated in the financial and statistical report for 1946-47 recently sent to member schools. Highlighted in the report are the following statements.

1. Number of member schools—604 (95 more than in 1945-46).
2. Number of registered students—28,124 (5,786 more than in 1945-46).
3. Number of reported injuries—3,080 (442 more than in 1945-46).
4. Number of allowed injury benefits (claims paid)—2,195 (404 more than in 1945-46).
5. Number of claims withdrawn or not allowed—885 (38 more than in 1945-46).
6. Membership and students registration fees received from 604 member schools—\$46,132.25 (\$7,823.25 more than in 1945-46).
7. Amount paid on 2,195 allowed injury benefits—\$39,503.43 (\$5,100.13 more than in 1945-46).
8. Average amount paid on 2,195 claims—\$17.99 (\$1.21 less per claim than in 1945-46).
9. During the seven years of operation of the Benefit Plan (1940-41 through 1946-47) there have been 8,306 claims paid to member schools for a total of \$132,709.67.—*News of the Week*.

HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM REVISION—This month nine representatives of as many national organizations will form a National Commission for Life Adjustment on Secondary School Youth. The Commission is being sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education. Its task will be to promote "far-reaching changes in the high-school curriculum, because for the majority of our pupils the present courses of study are obsolete and inadequate."

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION'S 1948 TEACHER EXAMINATION PROGRAM—Arrangements are now being made by the American Council on Education for the establishment of examining centers for the ninth annual administration of its National Teacher Examinations. The examining centers are conducted in co-operation with school systems and teacher-education institutions. Superintendents and boards of education in many localities require teaching applicants to present National Teacher Examinations records. The examination results are used as one of the factors in the selection of teachers.

The Teachers Examinations are also administered in connection with teacher education programs in colleges and universities, both at undergraduate and graduate levels. The examination profile is used for student guidance and self-study of strengths and weaknesses in areas measured by tests. The tests are frequently used as comprehensive examinations for under graduates and as qualifying examinations for graduate students. Used in combination with additional information such as that provided by records of experience, academic marks, ratings of various aspects of personality, etc., the Teacher Examination results can contribute materially to the attainment of education's fundamental goal, the provision of the best possible instruction for young people in the schools.

The American Council on Education welcomes the use of its examination by any school system or college, provided assurance is given that the examination results will be used wisely *in combination* with other significant information concerning the prospective teacher.

Arrangements for the establishment of examining centers should be made by superintendents of schools and college officials. Correspondence regarding co-operation in the project may be addressed to David G. Ryans, Associate Director, National Committee on Teacher Examinations, American Council on Education, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York 23, New York.

A LOCAL FIRE SAFETY COMMITTEE—Nearly every man, woman, and youth in this nation is a member of some organization, such as an insurance agents association, a veterans' post, service club, women's club, farm grange, labor union, scout troop or church. One individual, entirely on his own, may do a good job of preaching fire safety, but he will make a very small dent in the wall of public indifference. By using this same drive and effort among the members of his own group he may be able to organize a Fire Prevention Committee. A representative of the committee can work with members of a similar committee of other groups and eventually a working Fire Safety Committee for the community will evolve. Every community can make life safer through an active Fire Safety Committee, working the year-around. This committee may be officially appointed by the mayor or be organized under the leadership of the Chamber of Commerce, junior chamber, safety council, local insurance agent organization or some other important business or civic group. Whatever the type of committee organization, primary responsibility for Fire Safety Committee is in operation, an intensive effort during Fire Prevention Week is a part of its 52-week campaign. All of the various officials, agencies and representative voluntary groups in the community co-operate and undertake responsibility for various phases of the program which they are best equipped to do. Duplication and overlapping is thereby eliminated. Helpful suggestions and aids may be secured from the National Board of Fire Underwriters, 85 John Street, New York 7, New York; 222 West Adams Street, Chicago 6, Illinois; or 1014 Merchants Exchange, San Francisco 4, California.

CHILD LABOR ENFORCEMENT TRANSFERRED—The administration of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act has been transferred from the Division of Labor Standards to the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor.

Under the transfer, the child-labor enforcement activities under the Fair Labor Standards Act are merged with the enforcement of the minimum wage and over-time provisions in the Wage and Hour Division's Field Operations Branch. A new unit in the Wage and Hour Division, known as the Child Labor Branch, composed of personnel transferred from the Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch of the Division of Labor Standards, will conduct the research program and age-certification activities related to the administration of the child-labor provisions of the Wage and Hour Law. The activities of the new unit will include investigations of occupations hazardous to minors and recommendation to the Secretary on the formulation of orders applying the 18-year minimum age under the Act to occupations found to be particularly hazardous. The new branch will also frame regulations on the special conditions which must be met for the employment of 14- and 15-year-old children under the Act, and collect, analyze and disseminate information on child labor problems and trends.

The Book Column

Books for Teacher and Pupil Use

- PAWELEK, S. J. *An Introduction to Drafting*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1947. 139 pp. \$1.48. A book that combines the theory and practice of sketching with a fundamental understanding of the principles of drafting—a book that does not require special instruments or intricate techniques. It follows the developmental method of teaching throughout. The principles of drafting are presented in progressive order—from the known to the unknown in easy stages. The comprehensive, well-organized lessons make this an effective book for either separate drafting classes or general shop classes in which drafting is a unit of instruction. The book is written in language that can be readily understood by anyone coming in contact with drafting for the first time. A boy twelve years old and in the seventh grade can understand it as easily as an adult taking his first drafting course.
- PETERSHAM, MAUD and MISKA. *America's Stamps*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1947. 144 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of one hundred years of U. S. postage stamps told in text and illustrations. It gives the important dramatic story behind each stamp, what it portrays, and some philatelic information, and the accurate reproduction of the stamp itself. The authors have also introduced many pictures to illustrate the event the stamps commemorate.
- RIEDEL, R. E., and HAUGH, HELEN. *United States of America*. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1947. 864 pp. \$2.92. While organized around nine units on a chronological basis, this book is an effort to picture American history—not so much in terms of specific facts, even though they are important, but more in terms of the total proportions of the story and the relations of one factor to another. The activities suggested in this text have been planned in accordance with certain specific objectives: to stimulate an interest in American history through reading; to stress the continuity of history and to show the relationship between the problems of the past and those of the present; to bring about an understanding of the past by the study of persons whose lives were identified with it; to emphasize the importance of geography as a factor in determining social, economic, and political trends and policies; to train students in working, thinking, and planning together; to develop judgment in distinguishing between fact and opinion, an understanding of the importance of critical search for truth, and a realization of how personal decisions can promote or destroy the best interests of society. Lists of key dates, persons, unusual terms, questions based on the text are included.
- RILEY, MARY, and HUMBERT, ANDRE. *Petis Contes Vrais*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. 1946. 253 pp. \$1.00. In this first-year French reader student interest is stimulated by these true stories of a French family living in picturesque Saint Malo. The stories use a small vocabulary. Sentence and verb constructions are simple. Materials are carefully graded. Actual photo-

graphs and colorful illustrations add personality to the book. Each story is followed by a skill-building and vocabulary-fixing exercise.

ROBINSON, BRADLEY. *Dark Companion*. New York: Robert M. McBride and Co. 1947. 286 pp. \$3.50. This is the life story of Matthew Henson, first of all Negro explorers. It is an account of adventure and achievement and a tribute to Admiral Peary's loyal companion in the most notable of modern exploration honors—that of carrying the American flag across the frozen Arctic to the top of the world. Born on an impoverished Maryland farm eighty-one years ago, Matthew Henson ran away to sea at the age of twelve; nine years later he joined Lieutenant Robert E. Peary, young naval engineer, on an expedition to survey a canal across Nicaragua. Thus began a heart-warming association without parallel in American history, of the great white explorer and his indispensable Negro associate. For eighteen years, Peary and Henson stormed the frozen wastes of the Far North, suffering cold and starvation together in fruitless efforts to reach the North Pole. Not until their seventh attempt in this desperate struggle did they achieve victory. Admiral Peary did not hesitate to proclaim that Matt Henson, because of his adaptability, fitness, loyalty, and unequalled skill as a dog driver, was his most valuable aide. Henson showed a natural talent for the great task. He learned and spoke fluently the Eskimo language, was considered by the Eskimos as one of their own race, and thus secured the devotion of the Arctic inhabitants in all their enterprises.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *Gridiron Challenge*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1947. 240 pp. \$2.50. Barney Bolt, amateur prize fighter, believed that his college career would be a blaze of glory. He was already famous in the boxing ring and he could depend on his fists to get for him anything that could not be won by diplomacy. Things did not work out as Barney had planned. College football and character development are the two themes of this sports story by a former Olympic champion.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH; CLARK, J. R.; and LANKFORD, F. G. *Mathematics for the Consumer*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co. 1947. 448 pp. Dealing with the problems of daily living, the book gives attention to problems encountered in food, shelter, budgeting, borrowing, and installment buying, saving, reading and interpreting statistical data, keeping records, insurance, and taxes. The book intended for use in the senior high school, provides basic knowledge for the student in developing and achieving functional competence. Three goals of the course are: mathematical competence, an intelligent and efficient consumer of goods and services, and a keen understanding of the mathematical language used in the newspapers and magazines of today. The problems, examples, and illustrations are those that every normal person encounters in day-to-day living.

SEABROOK, WILLIAM. *Asylum*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc. 1947. 199 pp. 25 cents. Here is a real story of how the author, an alcoholic, takes the cure.

SISKIND, C. S. *Electricity—Principles, Practice Experiments*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1947. 458 pp. \$2.60. This book presents the elementary principles of direct and alternating current electricity, shows how these

principles apply to the construction and operation of circuits, devices, and machines; and illustrates how they may be verified by the carrying out of simple experiments. Special emphasis is given to magnetism, electromagnetism, and electromagnetic induction as they apply to the practical operation of electromagnets, transformers, generators, motors, and control equipment. Numerous demonstration experiments are outlined, and detailed instructions for many useful construction projects are included. More than forty carefully selected experiments are provided, with instructions for setting up and testing circuits and machines. Typical problems are solved to emphasize important theoretical discussions and practical installations. Each chapter is concluded with a complete summary, an especially worthwhile list of questions, and an illustrative group of extremely practical problems.

SKAR, R. O.; SCHNEIDER, A. E.; and PALMER, B. W. *Personal Business Law*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1947. 649 pp. \$1.96. Here is a textbook in business law, written especially for the student as a consumer and stressing the application of business law to everyday, personal problems. It brings to the student what he should know about his legal relationships with business, whether he is in business or not. Throughout, it follows the personal, consumer approach, presenting its material from the buyer's, rather than the seller's, viewpoint. The various topics are developed on the basis of the business problems which ordinarily arise in everyday life, such as buying a car, renting or buying a house, discounting notes, borrowing money, and similar situations. Recent legislation is fully treated. Assignment material and helps to study are interesting, thought-provoking, and abundant. Illustrations are appealing and high in teaching value. A list of correlated visual aids is included—motion pictures and filmstrips—correlated with the material in the text.

SKINNER, CORNELIA OTIS, and KIMBROUGH, EMILY. *Our Hearts Were Young and Gay*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc. 1947. 216 pp. 25 cents. An account of the adventures of these two young Americans who had an exciting trip in England and France.

Sportsmanlike Driving. Washington 6, D.C.: American Automobile Association. 1947. 437 pp. \$1.25. Special quantity discounts. This book meets the need for timely, complete, adaptable text material for courses in driving. It is a completely rewritten and greatly improved text over its former appearance. It is the outgrowth of more than a decade of experience in both class work and behind-the-wheel training, and of many editions of "Sportsmanlike Driving" text pamphlets, of which more than a million copies have been distributed. So, in this sense, it is a time-tested veteran text. That driver education is essential is borne out by a glance at such facts as: "Nearly half of all persons in the United States over sixteen years of age drive motor vehicles, and the number is growing rapidly. Among males aged 20 to 44 years, some 84 per cent are drivers. Then, too, everyone's a pedestrian, and those afoot need better understanding of traffic problems and walking safety. Drivers aged 16 to 20 years have five times as many fatal accidents in terms of miles

driven as drivers aged 45 to 50. In the recent World War, 1,070,000 American youths were wounded, killed, missing in action, or taken prisoner. During the same period, 3,300,000 civilians lost their lives or were injured in traffic accidents in this country." It is composed of twenty-two chapters organized under four major headings: The Driver and the Pedestrian, Sound Driving Practices, How to Drive, and The Motor Age Advances.

STEEL, BYRON. *Let's Visit Our National Parks*. New York 16: Robert M. McBride and Co. 1947. 234 pp. \$3.00. The scenic splendor and the wealth of pleasant diversion open to the vacationists in the United States are here presented in practical guidebook form by the author of *Let's Visit Mexico*. Planned trips to all of our national parks and three national areas—north, east, south, west—take the motorist to the unspoiled national beauties the government has set aside for his enjoyment. Starting from the six key cities—New York, Chicago, New Orleans, St. Louis, San Francisco, and Seattle—routes are laid out, chosen for their scenic and historic interest to each of the places described. These routes may be picked up conveniently from any point in the country and followed easily without reference to road maps. However, for the tourist who likes to plan his trips graphically, six maps are provided showing the key routes and covering the entire country. Full information about each of the parks and the six key cities is given. Each point of interest within the park is mentioned together with information as to transportation available, lodgings and their price ranges, eating places and their specialties, with notes as to the relative costs of meals. Sports and recreations afforded by the park are detailed—fishing, golf, tennis, horseback riding, swimming, hiking, camping, skating, skiing, etc. Prices and services have been certified and were up to the minute when the book went to press. Valuable sightseeing information about cities of tourist interest within motoring distance of each park is also given. With this handy volume the motorist can plan a thoroughly satisfactory trip suitable to his tastes and pocket-book. *Let's Visit Our National Parks* is an aid for tourist whether he plans a tour of the whole country or only a limited trip to one or two national parks.

STEVENSON, O. J. *The Talking Wire*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1947. 215 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of a great man and a great achievement. Alexander Graham Bell began teaching speech, elocution, and music for a living at the age of sixteen. He was particularly concerned with the problems of the deaf and dumb, and his work with them led to an interest in the variations and resonances of sound. The telegraph had already been invented and Bell wondered why the human voice could not be transmitted over an electric current as well as dots and dashes. So, devoting every spare moment of his time to research and experiment, he worked on a theory of "electric speech."

When, on a hot June day in 1875, the wires in his apparatus crossed and so generated an electric current, he knew he was on the right track at last toward the invention of the telephone. He filed his first patent for a "multiple telegraph" apparatus on his 29th birthday, on March 3, 1876. Many months later his model for the "talking wire" was displayed at the Philadelphia Centennial and there, Dom Pedro, the Emperor of Brazil,

recognized its importance and Bell was started on the road to fame. Although Bell developed many other interests in later years, he lived to enjoy almost fifty years of fame and fortune as the man who produced one of the greatest miracles of science—the telephone.

STODDARD, A. J.; BAILEY, MATILDA; and McPHERSON, ROSAMOND. *English, Second Course*. New York 16: American Book Co. 1947. 608 pp. \$2.08. *English, Second Course* follows *English, First Course* and is the second book in the high-school series. The aims set down in the preceding book are carried forward on a higher level in this book. The functional, utilitarian aspects of English continue to be stressed in both the composition and grammar sections. Too often pupils have asked, "What good will this do me?" In those classes in which grammar, or composition, is taught as a mental discipline, there is no answer. In this book, oral and written work emphasizes the everyday needs of communication, and grammar and usage are so closely related that the practical importance of grammar is obvious. Moreover, in the effort to make English utilitarian, the aesthetic values have not been neglected. Correctness is one goal, but enrichment is another. It is the purpose of this book first to stimulate boys and girls to think and then to help them to express their thoughts both correctly and effectively.

Today's Civics. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. 1946. 48 pp. 32 cents. Here is material for civics and problems of democracy classes. It gives the story of what happened to government during the war, and what is happening now. Text, photographs, charts, graphs, and maps combine to bridge the gap between what the textbook says and what is happening now.

Today's Geography of the World. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. 1946. 48 pp. 20 cents. The "last chapter" to a geography, history, or economics textbook with 48 pages of text and 40 maps, mostly in color, giving the pupil an understanding of the geographic facts behind today's headlines.

United Nations. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co. 1947. 32 pp. 20 cents. A handbook of the UN, it contains interesting, concise, complete facts about UN from the Atlantic Charter to the New York meetings.

VAN TUYL, G. H. *Business Arithmetic*. New York: American Book Co. 1947. 364 pp. \$1.64. This *Business Arithmetic* is designed for a brief course and also for general arithmetic classes. Because of the varying abilities of pupils beginning the study of business arithmetic, there has been provided in the first two lessons a prognostic test on three levels of ability: (a) the first part of the test deals with the pupil's power of observation; (b) the second part tests the pupil's ability to perform the four fundamental operations with integers and fractions; (c) the third part of the test deals with problem solving. How to solve problems is stressed very early in the text, with plenty of exercises for practice. Part One of the text is planned and laid out in 60 lesson units. A fourth feature of the text is found in the constant reviewing of topics both in the lessons and in the diagnostic tests at regular intervals. The diagnostic tests serve as a "yard stick" to measure the progress of the pupils.

VINTON, IRIS. *Flying Ebony*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1947. 311 pp. \$2.50. This is a story of a boy and his experiences along the seacoast near the Port of New York in the early days. Lovers of the sea and of horses will enjoy reading about the vigils that were kept along the coast to help ships in distress—the forerunner of our Coast Guard Service. It is full of adventure and intrigue.

Pamphlets, etc. for Teacher and Pupil Use

And Proudly Serves as a Principal. Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Elementary-School Principals. 1947. 16 pp. Discusses what the good principal does.

Arming the United Nations. Washington, D. C.: Department of State. Aug. 3, 1947. (Bulletin Supplement). Free. The original agreement and the position of the various delegations.

Arnall, Ellis, et al. *The South Faces Economic Change*. Chicago: University of Chicago Round Table. 1947 (May 18). 29 pp. 10 cents. By subscription for six months, \$1.50; for one year, \$3.00 (published weekly). A radio discussion of this topic.

Aviation Education—Teachers' Guide. Binghamton, New York: Link Aviation Devices, Inc. 1946. 83 pp. Single copies free to teachers upon their request; for orders of five or more copies, 65 cents each. This booklet comprises a complete set of outlines to assist teachers in presenting the units of a general aviation course. The material is arranged to make it easy for teachers to prepare daily lesson plans directly from the outline. The company also has another publication, *Fundamentals of Aviation* by Potter and Konicek (\$1.00 price for people not in the educational system, but to schools, 35 cents per copy only).

Bath, G. H. *America's Williamsburg*. Williamsburg, Virginia: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc. 1946. 48 pp. 65 cents. A description of why and how the historic capital of Virginia, oldest and largest of England's thirteen American colonies, has been restored to its 18th century appearance by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Photographs are by Wendell Mackae and are from the archives of colonial Williamsburg. The booklet is also accompanied by a reproduction (on decorative heavy cardboard, size 7¼ x 9¼ inches and suitable for placing in a double-glass frame for display) of the Virginia Bill of Rights drawn originally by George Mason and adopted by the Convention of Delegates, June 12, 1776.

Bathurst, E. G. *Inter-American Understanding and the Preparation of Teachers*. Washington 5, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1946. 104 pp. 30 cents. Describes the work carried on in this field by twenty-two demonstrational centers for in-service and pre-service preparation of teachers for inter-American education.

Betts, E. A., and Hackman, Roy B. *An Evaluation of the Baltimore Myopia Project*. Philadelphia: Temple University. 1947. 12 pp. A reprint on experimental and statistical procedures of a reading clinic from the March, 1947, issue of *The Journal of the American Optometric Association*.

Blough, Roy, et al. *The Meaning of the New Tax Policy*. Chicago: University of Chicago. Round Table. June 15, 1947. 21 pp. A radio discussion including President Truman's Veto Message.

- Blumenthal, J. C. *Common Sense English Book II*. N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1947. 287 pp. 92 cents. Reviews all the principles of usage, sentence construction, and punctuation presented in Book I and adds additional materials in these areas. It presents grammar on the basis of needs. It aims not at classification but at application. Unit tests and comprehensive final tests are included.
- Brown, F. J. *Selected issues in Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1947. 25 pp. Discusses Universal Military Training, Federal Aid to Education; Department of Health, Education, and Security; and UNESCO.
- Bryan, R. C. *Seven Rules of Clear Thinking*. Kalamazoo 45, Mich.: Western State High School. 1947. 82 pp. A 6-week-unit for high-school student use.
- Budgeting for Security*. Washington 25, D. C.: Education Section of the U. S. Savings Bonds Division, Treasury Dept. 1947. 24 pp. Free. A teaching unit of basic material for use of teachers of mathematics, home economics, social studies, and vocational guidance. After September 1, copies of this teaching unit will be available free of charge from State Savings Bonds Offices.
- A Career in Life Insurance Sales and Service*. New York 17: Institute of Life Insurance, 60 East 42nd St. 1947. 16 pp. Free. Information about life insurance careers.
- Cherry, Raymond. *General Plastics — Projects and Procedures*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight. 1947. 156 pp. \$1.50. Presents a "how to do it" book of instruction for the home craftsman who works with plastics. Brief step-by-step descriptions tell how to work plastics with hand tools and home workshop power tools. Clear photographic illustrations show "how" each operation is done. There are designs and detailed instructions for making forty-nine valuable, attractive articles. This book explains how plastics are made. It discusses common trade names and the applications of various types of plastics.
- Commission to Study the Organization of Peace. *Security and Disarmament Under the United Nations*. New York 21: The Commission, 45 East 65th Street. 1947. 35 pp. The fifth reprint of the Commission.
- Committee for Kentucky. *A Report on the Peoples Legislative Program for Kentucky*. Louisville: The Committee, 506 South Third St. 1947. 16 pp. An outline of the program. Illustrated.
- Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification. *The Chautauqua Conference*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1947. 132 pp. \$1.00. Planographed. A report on the National Emergency Conference on Teacher Preparation and Supply held at Chautauqua, N. Y., June 28-29, 1946.
- Covert, Timon. *Financing Public Education*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1947. 20 pp. 10 cents. Outlines general features of a satisfactory state plan.
- Crowson, Jr., Ben F. *The United Nations in Review*. Washington, D. C.: The author, 1333 F St., N. W., Room 350. 1947. \$1.00. A series of semi-annual reference charts (22 x 17 in.) giving information under 15 categories about the members.
- Cuba: Supplies Your Sugar and Buys Your Products*. Havana: American Cham-

ber of Commerce of Cuba, P. O. Box 849. 1947. 21 pp. Insight into the fundamentals of Cuban-American trade as affected by the Sugar Act of 1937 which expires Dec. 31, 1947.

Duvall, E. M. *Keeping Up With Teen-Agers*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 22 East 38th St. 1947. 32 pp. 20 cents. Deals with the field of personal problems and family relations.

Ebaugh, C. D. *Education in Ecuador*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1947. 98 pp. 25 cents. One of the series of a program by the U. S. Office of Education to promote understanding of educational conditions in the American countries and to encourage co-operation in the field of Inter-American education.

Ebaugh, C. D. *Education in El Salvador*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1947. 88 pp. 25 cents. One of the series of a program by the U. S. Office of Education to promote understanding of educational conditions in the American countries and to encourage co-operation in the field of Inter-American education.

Ebaugh, C. D. *Education in Nicaragua*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1947. 60 pp. 20 cents. One of the series of a program by the U. S. Office of Education to promote understanding of educational conditions in the American countries and to encourage co-operation in the field of Inter-American education.

Education for Work and Family Living. Washington 6, D. C.: American Educational Research Association. 1947 (June). 56 pp. \$1.00. Covers "Education for Work Movement," "Home and Family Life Education," "Industrial Education," "Business Education," and "Agricultural Education."

Education in Britain. Washington 5, D. C.: British Information Services, 907 Fifteenth St., N. W. 1947. 36 pp. The story of Britain's education system.

Educational and Employment Opportunities for Youth. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau, Federal Security Agency. 1947. 30 pp. Free. A report that brings together information and recommendations of a dozen federal agencies for use in planning youth employment and education.

Employment Outlook in Machine Shop Occupations. Bulletin No. 895. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1947. 32 pp. 20 cents. Discusses job prospects, duties, training, earnings, and working conditions.

Endicott, F. S. *The Guidance and Counseling of Business Education Students*. Cincinnati: South-Western Pub. Co. 1947. 30 pp. 50 cents. Briefly outlines some fundamental principles and basic techniques.

Falls, J. D. *The Appropriation, Distribution, and Administration of the State Equalization Fund*. Frankfort, Kentucky. State Department of Education. 1946. (October No. 8.) 32 pp. Deals with the methods used in apportioning the Kentucky equalization fund.

Farm Leaders and Teachers Plan Together. Washington 6, D. C.: National Educational Association. 1947. 36 pp. 25 cents. Summaries of the thinking of agricultural leaders on educational policy at eight regional conferences.

Farm Work for City Youth, Program Aid No. 27. Washington 25, D. C.: United States Department of Agriculture, Extension Service. 1947. 26 pp. Free. Endeavors to kindle greater interest in keeping open youths' employment avenues to the farm. It points out some of the educational needs of youth today and shows some of the learning values in farm work.

- Fenton, W. N. *Arca Studies in American Universities*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1947. 93 pp. \$1.00. Summarizes the observations and discussions resulting from the author's personal visits to 27 colleges where the Army Specialized Training Programs mentioned were in progress in early 1944.
- Ferguson, Homer, et al. *What Is Your Congress Doing?* Chicago: University Round Table, June 22, 1947. 21 pp. A radio broadcast on the long predicted stalemate between Congress and the President on the tax and labor bills.
- Fernos-Isern, Antonio. *Addresses*. Washington, D. C.: Office of Puerto Rico, 1026 Seventeenth Street, N. W. 62 pp. "The Mind of Puerto Rico" and "Political, Intellectual, and Social Aspects of Puerto Rico" in English and Spanish.
- First Session of the General Conference of UNESCO* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1947. 165 pp. 35 cents. A report of the U. S. delegation to this conference in Paris, November 19 to December 10, 1946.
- Foreman, Sidney. *The Educational Objectives of the U. S. Military Academy*. Bulletin No. 2. West Point: The Library, U. S. Military Academy. 1946. 43 pp. Free. An historical study of the basic academic, physical, and character training aims of the U. S. military academy.
- Forrest Wilbur, et al. *A Free and Responsible Press*. Chicago: University of Chicago Round Table. 1947 (April 6). 30 pp. 10 cents. A 6-month subscription for \$1.50 or a 12-month subscription for \$3.00. A radio discussion.
- Fox, M. E. *A Thousand Topics for Composition*. Urbana, Illinois: C. W. Roberts, 204A Lincoln Hall. 1947 (May). 16 pp. 15 cents. Classified under seventeen headings.
- Fox, T. R. *The Struggle for Atomic Control*. New York 15: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th Street. 1947. 32 pp. 20 cents. The author tries to show that a way can be found for agreement if *the will exists on both sides*. He presents a factual history of the negotiations that have taken place.
- Fox, W. H. *Testing Services Offered by the Division of Research and Field Services*. Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. 1947. 36 pp. 50 cents. Information on services available.
- Free Materials for Schools*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1947. 12 pp. Free. Discusses their significance and their source.
- Future Teachers of America*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1947. 196 pp. \$1.00. The seventh yearbook of this rapidly growing organization sponsored by the NEA.
- Girl Scouts. *Day Camp Standards for Girl Scouts*. New York 17: National Organization, 155 E. 44th Street. 30 pp. 10 cents. Score sheets for equipment, health, committee, etc., with objectives and bibliography.
- Girl Scouts. *Established Camp Standards for Girl Scouts*. New York 17: National Organization, 155 East 44th Street. 16 pp. 10 cents. Standards for water-front, business management, administration, etc.
- Girl Scouts. *Trip Camp Standards for Girl Scouts*. New York 17: National Organization, 155 East 44th Street. 16 pp. 10 cents. Standards for a good camp, based on the experience of camp committees, visitors, and specialists.
- Girl Scouts. *Troop Camp Standards for Girl Scouts*. New York 17: National Organization, 155 East 44th Street. 20 pp. 10 cents. Camping objectives and

- score sheets for program, leadership, sanitation, safety, nutrition, site, etc.
- Graham, G. M. *We Earn the Future*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of University Women, 1634 I St., N. W., 1946. 41 pp. 25 cents. A handbook to stimulate and guide leaders in forming enlightened public opinion in international relations.
- Guide for Lecturers and Teachers*. Lake Success, New York: Section for Lecture Services and Educational Liaison, Department of Public Information, United Nations. 1947. 185 pp. Excellent background materials.
- Hawkins, E. D. *America's Role in China*. New York 22: American Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th St. 1947. 64 pp. 25 cents. Mr. Hawkins of Mount Holyoke College presents an outline and an analysis of American policy toward China since 1784 and shows the significance of these trends in Far Eastern policy for America.
- Health Interests of Children*. Denver 2: Department of Instruction, Denver Public Schools. 1947. 125 pp. \$1.25. A report of a research study of the health interests of 3600 pupils in the Denver Public Schools. In addition to providing data on interests, the book summarizes health needs of children as identified by experts in the fields of health and health education. It presents also in summary form those growth and developmental characteristics of children which relate most closely to their health interests and needs.
- High School Was Like This*. Rocky Mount, N. C.: Booker T. Washington High School. 1946. 84 pp. This story was developed by the staff of the Washington High School, Rocky Mount, N. C., in co-operation with representatives of the Secondary-School Study of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes. It tells what the current program is like in this high school and how it came to be as it is.
- Higher Education in Maryland*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1947. 384 pp. A factual report of a survey of higher education in Maryland with an interpretation of the collected data to assist the Maryland Commission on Higher Education to make recommendations to the State Legislature.
- Higinbotham, W. A., and Lindley, E. N. *Atomic Challenge*. New York 16: Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th St. 1947. 63 pp. 35 cents. A simple readable pamphlet by competent reporters dealing with some of the problems of international control of atomic energy.
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- How Old Are You?* New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. 1947. Leaflet. Growth and health go together. Bar graphs showing average gain in weight and height for boys and girls up to 17 years of age.
- Huggins, Ruth. *Simple Visual Aids in the Teaching of English*. Urbana, Illinois: Illinois English Bulletin. March, 1947. 15 pp. A case for neglected simple visual aids available to every English teacher in contrast to the overstressed and elaborate aids ordinarily considered progressive.
- Inter-Allied Reparation Agency, First Report of the Secretary General for the Year 1946*. Washington 25, D. C.: Department of State. 1947. 77 pp. Discusses the history of reparations and the work of the Agency.
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- Medlin, C. J. *Hints for Yearbook Editors*. Manhattan, Kansas: Department of Industrial Journalism and Printing, Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science. 1946. 27 pp. Helpful aids for the yearbook staff.
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Nash, Jean, and Troy, Hugh. *The Student Editor's Manual*. New York: Eton Publishing Corporation. 1947. 82 pp. Illustrated. \$1.40. A manual directed to the students and sponsors of scholastic publications. All phases of publishing are discussed in simple terms and illustrated with a humorous touch—editing, reporting, business managing, advertising, art, production, and sponsorship. In addition, the infrequently touched fields of mimeographed material, typography, binding, proofreading, printing, and engraving processes are introduced. Specimen sheets, glossary, etc., add to value.

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National Projects in Educational Measurement. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1947. 83 pp. A report showing evidence of varied developments in the testing field, emphasizing the value of undertakings of competent organizations in specialized professional and technical areas.

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Naval College Training Program—1948. Princeton, N. J. Naval Examining Section, College Entrance Examination Board, P. O. Box 709. 1947. 28 pp. Free. A description of the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps and the Naval Aviation College Program.

Newsom, N. W., and Pendergrast, J. H. *Manual for the Preparation of Term Reports for High School Students*. Denver: Sage Books, Inc. 1947. 30 pp. 65 cents. Designed to meet the need of individuals and groups in selecting a topic, using source materials, taking notes, writing, and submitting term papers. Forms for outlining, tables, graphs, footnotes, and bibliographies. Illustrated.

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